THE

GENERAL REVIEW.

Vol. I. JANUARY, 1806. *No. I.*

ART. I.—*A Description of Latium; or La Campagna di Roma; with Etchings by the Author. 4to. 268 Pages, with a Quarto Map and 20 Etchings. Price 1l. 11s. 6d.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THE work before us claims our attention from the interest of the subject, since no author's name appears to raise expectation or depress it. The numerous and diversified beauties of Italy may be said to be almost inexhaustible; and, though ever so often discussed, may yet continue to supply the man of letters or virtù with an ample field for investigation and research. Baron Stolberg's Travels, and Lumisden's Description of the Antiquities of Rome, are interesting, and may be found useful to those who have not paid any attention to the subjects of which they treat; but the voluminous publication of M. de la Lande, entitled *Voyage en Italie*, is perhaps the best general compendium to supply the place of a *Cicerone* of any that has been hitherto published. The object of the present work, we conceive, is to unite with his mode of description (to the extent of its subject) more extensive erudition and knowledge of antient history, with occasional remarks on the manners and character of the present inhabitants of Rome and the Campagna.

In the commencement is a short account of antient Latium, derived from the poets and the ingenious conjectures of the various writers of antiquity, with such facts as may serve to convey instruction to a modern traveller who has not previously stored his mind with antient history and mythology. But to us the most valuable part of this work is the judicious and discriminating remarks interspersed, characterizing the modern Romans and their present state of society, which, as they appear to be drawn from personal knowledge, may be considered as the most original

and the most interesting part of this volume. Speaking of their autumnal recreation, called *villeggiatura*, it is observed that

'These towns (of the Campagna) are at present, in general, well inhabited, and they are also the retreat of the Roman nobility and citizens during their autumnal absence from the capital. Some of the Romans go into the country to pass the month of May, but that of October is the time in which they usually leave town; the air being then purified by the rains of September.

'Most of the nobility, and indeed all who are in easy circumstances, either possess or hire houses for this month, at one or other of the little towns within ten or twenty miles of the capital. This is called going into *villeggiatura*; and it forms one of the principal pleasures of their existence. They esteem it not only necessary for their health, but essential to their making a respectable appearance in society; and individuals who have not the advantage of possessing a *casino*, hire lodgings in convents or private houses, for as much of the month of October as their finances will allow.

'Ecclesiastics, lawyers, physicians, and others who dress as *abati*, in black, with short mantles over their shoulders, for the rest of the year, wear coloured coats during this month; and even cardinals change their usual habits for a purple frock. Towards the end of September every Roman appears with a countenance enlivened by the expectation of an agreeable *villeggiatura*, except the few whom business or want of money detains in the metropolis; and these endeavour to console themselves, by wearing the habit of *villeggianti*, and walking in the beautiful villas and vineyards which surround the city.

'None, however, anticipate with so much ardour, or enjoy with so much avidity, the pleasures of the month of October as the scholars, and we may add the masters, of the different colleges and seminaries in which Rome abounds. Each of these houses has a *casino* at or near one of the *castelli*, as the little towns are usually denominated. On the happy day appointed for the change of habitation, a long train of coaches conveys the youthful *villeggianti* to the scene of delight, where, under the eye of their preceptors, they join in all the amusements which the country affords. Their studies are not, however, totally neglected; for, besides the lessons they receive on mineralogy and botany during their excursions, it is remarked, that some of their best exercises are composed spontaneously at these seasons of recreation.

'The time of *villeggiatura* is indeed short, but that very reason contributes to render it more delightful. The mornings are usually employed in walks or friendly visits; in the evening, those who have carriages take an airing; and afterwards, all assemble at one or other of the houses, where conversation and music for the young, and cards for the elder, engage their attention. On these occasions the nobility sometimes mix with those of an inferior class, particularly where balls or concerts are given. Races, and other amusements appropriate to the country, form also a part of their pleasures.

'The Italians are not fond of solitude; but in these situations they can at once gratify their taste for the beauties of nature and their love

of society. The liveliness of imagination and elegant ease of expression, which are natural to them, lead us to think them peculiarly formed for conversation; and although we have mentioned cards and music as attractions, they, in general, require no other inducement for meeting and associating with each other, than the pleasure of conversing. When Cicero says that the principal distinction between the human race and the brute creation is the privilege enjoyed by the former of conversing together, it is impossible not to think of the Italians, and hold in high estimation a people which possesses in a superior degree this distinguished advantage.

'Dinners are also given by the nobility and opulent citizens, not only by invitation, but to any of their friends who come from Rome, or from the neighbouring *castelli*, without previous advice, to pass the day with them. Few families of distinction go into the country without inviting two or three single men to spend the month of October at their *casino*; and as these are often literary men, (indeed few of those admitted into good society have not some pretension to this character,) the *villeggiatura* usually is productive of poetical compositions, many of which could be cited as specimens of the taste and imagination which distinguish the Romans, and we may say the Italians in general; for it is to be remarked, that, Rome being the centre of church preferment for the different states of Italy, society is there composed of men of genius and abilities from every part of the peninsula, and formerly from every country in Europe.

'A society composed of persons such as we have endeavoured to describe, assembled round a learned and respectable prelate, or an amiable woman of graceful manners and brilliant imagination, such as are frequently to be found in this country, will be allowed to give no very imperfect idea of the most rational mode of relaxation, and will recall to the mind of every classical reader what he has been told by Plato and Cicero of the conversations at Athens and Tusculum.

'From these societies, over which preside cheerfulness and decorum, all unmeaning ceremony, affectation, and pedantry, are excluded; the Romans are here perfectly at their ease, and appear to the greatest advantage. Few travellers are at this season in the vicinity of Rome, still fewer are sufficiently acquainted with the language to join in social intercourse with the natives: those who have had that advantage will acknowledge that there is no flattery in the portrait; and others will not be sorry to learn, that the inhabitants of this once celebrated region, though deprived of political influence and commercial wealth, have yet enjoyments, which being less envied are perhaps more secure.' P. 45.

In this portrait we are happy to concur with the author in the veracity of the remarks and the justness of the reflections: and the account given of the Roman peasantry is a true picture, and well drawn.

'The Roman peasants have not the reputation of being industrious, but their numbers are scanty, and they cultivate sufficient ground to maintain themselves. Their delight is to ornament the churches, or at least the altar of some favourite saint, with flowers raised in their little gardens,

and wax lights, the produce of their savings. Indeed in this respect alone they are provident; they have not the slightest idea of hoarding, but enjoy the present moment without thinking of the morrow. A fine climate has the double advantage of guarding its inhabitants from many of the wants and miseries incidental to human nature, and of exhilarating their spirits, so as to enable them to pursue the path allotted to them with a confidence undiminished by atmospherical depression.

'Conversation is their chief amusement, and the men enjoy it over a flask of wine at the 'osteria,' or seated on wooden chairs placed circularly round a stand where water-melons are sold. The women sit at their doors, spinning and singing; but, in the evening, all join in walking through the streets of the towns, or, in the country, go home to their cottages from work, singing in parts or in chorus, while one or two play on the guitar.

'It is an error to suppose that the Italians of the lower order are not fond of wine: a man of education would be ashamed of appearing intoxicated, but it is not so with the peasants; and the disputes which arise amongst them are usually occasioned by this unhappy propensity: cards and jealousy will sometimes produce the same effect, and too often the consequences are fatal; but assassinations, for the purpose of depredation, are very uncommon in this part of Italy; indeed scarcely ever committed by a native. The highways are safe; and the little precaution taken to secure houses, even in the capital, proves that robberies are not frequent. The women are sober, and, in some places, very industrious: they are in general good wives, and excellent mothers.

'If these peasants are superstitious, their ideas on the subject are by no means gloomy: their evening walks are not disturbed by the apprehension of spectres; they have no fear of witchcraft; no fanatical despondency; no uncharitable dislike of other human beings. Their greatest pleasures arise from the festivals of their church, and they are regular in their attendance on Sundays, without being deterred by distance or bad weather.' P. 264.

On the summary character of the late pope we are sorry to make any comment: that he was hospitable to travellers of every nation, and to the English in particular, we are most willing to confess, and that adversity proved he possessed yet nobler virtues: his uncommon magnanimity and resignation under trials which might appall the bravest, and his dignified contempt of menaces and insults of the most barbarous nature, we will not deny; but when we are told, should this part of his character be unknown to posterity, that, in restoring to cultivation so considerable a tract of country as the Paludi Pontine, he must ever be regarded as the benefactor of his subjects,—we cannot help differing in opinion. This would indeed have been the case, had we not unfortunately known that this great work was performed at the expense of heavy imposts on the public when the treasury was exhausted, and the country daily precipitated to ruin, to aggrandise and magnify into importance a private man, the

most worthless of individuals and the greatest enemy of the state.

The following extract may serve to give a just notion of the author's power of thought and diction, who, in speaking of the antient feuds of the Orsini and Colonna families, observes, that

'It is interesting to consider the power and influence of the Roman barons of those ages, and the respect paid to them by the greatest sovereigns of Europe, and even by the popes, their titular masters: let us, at the same time, reflect on their violence and injustice, their ignorance and their barbarism, compared with the mild benevolence, the polished manners, and elegant acquirements, which characterize their descendants. The revenues of these are employed, not in seditious or revengeful expeditions, but in the protection and encouragement of artists and men of letters, and in the maintenance of numerous domestics, who, when age renders them incapable of serving, are allowed to repose beneath their hospitable roofs, while the infants are educated under their auspices, and at their expense. We see schools and colleges endowed and supported by them, and strangers received at their houses with splendour and courtesy; yet we know that they have lost all political influence, that their rank is become merely nominal, and their names scarcely mentioned beyond the limits of their own country. What must we conclude from the comparison? Shall we not say that activity, whether employed for good or evil purposes, if united with rank, wealth, and talents, will always command respect and ensure celebrity;—and that, if nations or individuals suffer themselves to lose that energy which dignifies existence, their other virtues will make no impression on mankind, and they will either be neglected or oppressed by those who once trembled before them? The conduct of the world in this respect is perhaps unjust, but it is unchangeable; how necessary, therefore, that the temerity of daring and restless guilt should constantly be opposed by the unceasing exertions of active virtue! p. 257.

The concluding chapter of this work, from which we have already made an extract, deserves high commendation; and where the author writes from his own feelings and judgment he appears to be entitled to the most praise.

In the narration and account of places either antient or modern we perceive little either to censure or to commend; but if printed in a more commodious size, it would doubtless be extremely useful to those who visit the places that are described. The etchings are executed with great taste and spirit, and require no apology for their being the production of an amateur,—one only excepted, the lake of Nemi, which is certainly not done by the same hand. With respect to their accuracy as individual representations, we cannot bestow the same tribute of commendation.

ART. II.—*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for the Year* 1805. *Part II.* 4to. 353 *pages, with an Index and six Plates. Price* 12*s.* Nicol.

Art. 9.—*Abstract of Observations on a Diurnal Variation of the Barometer between the Tropics. By J. Horsburgh, Esq.*

THESE observations were made with two marine barometers, in which the heights of the mercury were taken at noon, and at four hours, ten hours, twelve hours, sixteen hours, and nineteen hours; these being the times at which by former observations that fluid had been perceived to be regularly stationary between the tropics. It was found that in settled weather, in the Indian Seas, from eight A. M. till noon, the mercury was generally stationary and at the point of greatest elevation; after noon it began to fall, and continued falling till four in the afternoon, at which time it arrived at the lowest point of depression: from four or five P. M., the mercury rose again and continued rising till about nine or ten P. M., at which time it had again acquired its greatest point of elevation, and continued stationary till near midnight, when it began to fall; till at four A. M. it was again as low as it had been at four in the afternoon preceding; but from this time it rose till seven or eight o'clock, when it again reached the highest point of elevation, and continued stationary till noon.

In unsettled blowing weather, especially at Bombay during the rains, these regular ebbings and flowings of the mercury could not be perceived; but a tendency to them was sometimes observed when the weather was more settled. The elevations and depressions twice every twenty-four hours within the tropics have been before observed by others: but the author of the present paper has first observed that the effect at sea is different from that which takes place on shore or near the coasts.

The regular changes above described began to take place outward bound, in latitude 26° N., and were not so considerable from that latitude to 10° N. as they were in the zone lying between 10° N. and 25° S.—Within these last mentioned limits the difference of the high and low stations of the mercury was from five to nine hundredth parts of an inch. About the latitude 28° S. irregular and fluctuating motions were observed and continued while the ship kept in a more considerable southern latitude; but on hauling to the northward in the Indian Sea, the regular equatropical motions began at 27° S. latitude, and continued during the whole run to Bombay. Very little indication of these motions was seen on shore at Bombay or in the harbour; but immediately on quitting the same they reappeared, and continued with great uniformity during the passage down the coast of Malabar; across the bay of Bengal; in the Strait

of Malacca; and through the China Sea, till their arrival in Canton river, where the regular motions again disappeared.

On departing from Canton river, the equatropical motions were instantly performed by the mercury, and with great regularity continued during the whole of the passage to Bombay, even to the day of entering the harbour; where the mercury continued very nearly stationary. From the detail of other observations made on quitting Bombay harbour a second time, and returning to Canton through the Strait of Sincapore, where the quantity of rise and fall was less than in the open sea, and also in the harbour of Prince of Wales's Island, and in the river Hoogly and thence to Bombay, the changes were all in confirmation of the general fact before stated.

Mr. Horsburgh does not enter into any speculations respecting this new and curious fact. It seems probable, from its quantity as well as from its period, that it is not caused by any atmospheric tide, but merely by the action of the solar rays; of which the operation in causing the general and shifting trade winds, and the land and sea breezes, is pretty well understood. When the received theories are applied to this particular event, one of the greatest difficulties seems to be, to ascertain why there should be two vicissitudes in the twenty-four hours, instead of one, as first consideration would seem to point out.

Art. 10.—*Concerning the Differences in the Magnetic Needle, on board the Investigator, arising from an Alteration in the Direction of the Ship's Head. By Matthew Flinders, Esq. Commander of His Majesty's Ship Investigator.*

When we consider of how much importance it is to ascertain the dependence which ought to be placed on bearings magnetically determined at sea, where the mass of iron in a ship must necessarily act upon the compass; as well as in surveys on shore, where ferruginous minerals may, in numerous instances, occasion irregularities,—it must give great satisfaction both to practical and scientific men to find the subject has been investigated by so able a navigator and cosmographer as captain Flinders. His observations, which are tabulated, would lead us too far beyond our limits if we were to make any attempt to communicate them in this place. Proper attention was used in placing the compasses on board; and it was not found that removing some of the guns, and placing the surveying compass exactly a-midships, upon the binnacle, produced any material effect in remedying those disagreements which were found to follow the position of the ship's head. The quantities were observed to deviate from the truth as far as about 4° either way; so that the difference between the same bearing, taken when the ship's head lay in opposite directions, might amount to 8° or 9°. The error was of such a nature as to vanish when the ship's head was

nearly north or south per compass, and it was greatest when the ship's head was directed east or west. In south latitude it was westward when the ship's head was east, and eastward when the ship's head was west; so that the compass needle was acted upon in the same manner as if the ship itself had possessed the same polarity, in the direction of its length, the north end of the needle deviating from the ship's head, and the south end from her stern. The error in the variation was nearly proportional to the number of points which the ship's head was from the north or south; and Mr. Flinders submits the following as the cause of these differences:

'1. I suppose the attractive power of the different bodies in a ship, which are capable of affecting the compass, to be collected into something like a focal point or centre of gravity, and that this point is nearly in the centre of the ship where the shot are deposited; for here the greatest quantity of iron is collected together.

'2. I suppose this point to be endued with the same kind of attraction as the pole of the hemisphere where the ship is; consequently in New Holland the south end of the needle would be attracted by it, and the north end repelled.

'3. That the attractive power of this point is sufficiently strong in a ship of war, to interfere with the action of the magnetic poles upon a compass placed upon or in the binnacle.'

The remaining part of this valuable paper is employed in illustrating the second supposition, and upon facts which show what considerable deviations may be occasioned in the compass needle, by the nature of the ground in its vicinity. Captain Cook, in Hawkesworth, vol. iii. p. 126, notices a deviation of 30° and upwards, where the loose stones on the surface did not appear to exhibit any polarity; and our author found the needle of his theodolite had been drawn 50° out of its proper direction, near the head of Arnhem north bay, on the west side of the gulf of Carpentaria. The shore at this place consisted of iron ore, sufficiently magnetic for a piece of it to draw the needle 6° or 8° on one side.

Art. 11.—*The Physiology of the Stapes, one of the Bones of the Organ of Hearing; deduced from a comparative View of its Structure and Uses in different Animals. By Anthony Carlisle, Esq. F. R. S.*

A considerable mass of facts concerning light has been collected and scientifically arranged, and the structure of the organ of vision has been so far examined and compared with those facts, that the laws of vision may be considered as well known. It is not so with sound, and the organ of hearing. The vibrations of sonorous bodies, and their communication through other solids and fluids, with the manner in which they operate, so as ultimately to produce sensations in us, are but imperfectly

known. A better acquaintance with these would probably enable us to deduce the appropriate purposes of the admirable structure of the ears of animals; which consist of parts adapted to each other, and calculated, no doubt, to transmit the sonorous undulation to the nerves. As an intimate knowledge of the nature of sound might explain these structures, so on the other hand it is more than probable that a minute display of the various conformations of this part, when traced by the skilful and intelligent anatomist, would lead to topics of inquiry tending to elucidate and extend the general theories of sound. Mr. Carlisle, whose enlarged views and assiduous labours in comparative anatomy are well known, has long paid particular attention to the organ of hearing; one of the parts of which forms the subject of the present memoir.

He considers the ossicula auditûs in man and in the mammalia as a series of conductors, through which sounds are transmitted from the air by the membrana tympani into the sensitive parts of the organ. They are formed of close hard brittle bone resembling that of teeth. He gives a short account of the internal structure of the ear, and then proceeds to describe the bone called stapes in the human subject; illustrating his description by designs executed with uncommon precision. Into this detail we cannot enter, and still less can we describe the stapedes and columellæ of a great number of animals; of which bones he has given the designs, in the pesent memoir.

His conclusions are, that, in man and the most numerous orders of the mammalia, the figure of the stapes is an accommodation to the requisite degree of lightness in the ossicles; and in common with them it is a conductor of vibrations; but that it is more particularly designed to press on the fluid contained in the labyrinth, by the action which it receives from the stapedeus muscle and the hinge-like connection with the fenestra vestibuli, the ultimate effect of which is increased tension of the membrane closing the fenestra cochleæ.

He does not apprehend from the facts that any degree of motion ever subsists between the ossicula auditûs, as wholes, which bears any relation to the peculiar vibration of sounds; but rather that the different motions of these bones only affect the membrana tympani and alter the degrees of contact in their articulations, and by that means influence the intensity of violent impulses: sounds of less impetus, not requiring such modulation, are transmitted through the conducting series by the vibrations of the integrant parts of these bones unaccompanied by muscular action.

All the muscles of the ossicula auditûs, being apparently of the involuntary kind and supplied from the chorda tympani, which is a gangliated nerve, are acted upon by sound, as their peculiar stimulus. Upon this supposition our author accounts

for that simultaneous excitement, by which persons who hear imperfectly are most sensible to sounds in a noisy place.

The office performed by the basis of the stapes is indicated by him as throwing considerable light on the use of the cochlea. It appears that the membrane of the fenestra cochleæ, being exposed to the air contained within the cavity of the tympanum, is adapted to receive such sounds as pass through the membrana tympani, without exciting consonant motions in the series of ossicula auditûs.

He illustrates this by an experiment in which water was dropped into his ear, and the motion of the whole membrane from the blow of each drop of water affected the air contained in the tympanum sufficiently to produce an impression of sound.

Mr. C. promises more ample details, in a larger separate work upon the subject of the organs of hearing.

Art. 12.—*On an Artificial Substance, which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin. By Charles Hatchett, Esq. F. R. S.*

After a concise introductory statement of the labours of Deyeux, Seguin, Biggin, Proust, Davy, and Chenevix,—Mr. Hatchett proceeds to relate his own experiments.

Having observed in former operations several curious particulars of the action of nitric acid upon the resins—which are dissolved by that agent, and so completely changed that water throws nothing down from the solution, and evaporation affords a deep yellow viscid substance equally soluble in water and in alkohol—he was induced to extend his experiments to the bitumens, pit-coals, charcoal, and animal coal. A number of interesting results was obtained, for which his paper deserves to be consulted: the principal result, in his own words, is as follows.

'In most of the former papers which I have had the honour to lay before the Royal Society, I have for greater perspicuity generally concluded with a recapitulation of the contents; but in the present case this appears to be superfluous, as the whole may be concentrated into one simple fact, namely, that a substance very analogous to tannin, which has hitherto been considered as one of the proximate principles of vegetables, may at any time be produced by exposing carbonaceous substances, whether vegetable, animal, or mineral, to the action of nitric acid.

'Since the preceding experiments were made, I have further proved the efficacy of this substance by actual practice, and have converted skin into leather by means of materials which, to professional men, must appear extraordinary, such as deal saw-dust, asphaltum, common turpentine, pit-coal, wax candle, and a piece of the same sort of skin.

'Allowing, therefore, that the production of the substance must for the present be principally regarded only as a curious chemical fact not altogether unimportant; yet as the principle on which it is founded appears to be developed, we may hope that a more œconomical process will be discovered, so that every tanner may be enabled to prepare his leather even from the refuse of his present materials.'

Art. 13.—*The Case of a full-grown Woman, in whom the Ovaria were deficient. By Mr. Charles Pears, F. L. S.*

The person and habits of Ann Joseph are minutely described in this communication. Having ceased to grow at ten years of age, she was in stature no higher than four feet six inches; but the principal and characteristic circumstances of the individual were, that no indications of puberty, either in mind or body, had appeared even at twenty-nine years of age, when she died of an habitual complaint in the chest, attended with cough.

After death the female organs were taken out and preserved, and are represented in an engraving. The ovaria were so indistinct as rather to show the rudiments which ought to have formed them, than any part of their natural structure. The other parts had not increased beyond the infant state; and the history of this case is valuable, as it shows that an imperfect state of the ovaria is not only attended with an absence of all the characters of puberty, but that the want of due structure of those parts checks the growth of the uterus itself.

Art. 14.—*A Description of Malformation in the Heart of an Infant. By Mr. Hugh Chudleigh Standert.*

This infant lived ten days with the regular performance of all the animal functions, excepting that the skin exhibited the purple or blue colour so often noticed in cases of imperfect pulmonary circulation. All the viscera were in a natural state, except the heart, which being viewed externally, exhibited only one auricle, into which the pulmonary veins and the venæ cavæ entered in their ordinary directions. The pulmonary artery was wholly deficient; and on dissection it appeared that the body of the heart possessed but one ventricle, separated from the auricle by tendinous valves and opening into the aorta. The auricle was also single, having a narrow muscular band which crossed the ostium venosum, in the place of the septum. The aorta sent off an artery from the situation of the ductus arteriosus, which divided itself into two branches, supplying each mass of the lungs. These vessels were of small diameter. The arterial system had been injected with wax, and in removing the heart from the thorax this pulmonary branch of the aorta had been cut away. The pulmonary veins were four in number; but neither the area of these veins nor that of the vessel which

acted as the pulmonary artery, exceeded half the common dimensions.

This structure is illustrated by two designs.

The author concludes his account by remarking, that it appears to be a physiological fact of some importance, that an infant resembling in organization the amphibious animals, rather than the mammalia, should have existed so long under such circumstances, carrying on all the vital functions; especially as the dependence of life on respiration, and the changes produced in the vascular system, are so imperfectly understood.

Art. 15.—*On a Method of analysing Stones containing fixed Alkali, by means of the Boracic Acid. By Humphry Davy, Esq. F. R. S. Professor of Chemistry in the Royal Institution.*

Mr. Davy avails himself of the power which the boracic acid possesses of combining with earths at the temperature of ignition, and afterwards disengaging it, in the humid way, by a mineral acid. That is to say, he pulverizes the stone; fuses it with two parts of boracic acid; decomposes the compound with weak nitric acid, and evaporates. Silex, if present, falls down; and the other earths, after filtration, are precipitated by carbonate of ammonia. More nitric acid, being added to excess, engages the whole of the alkali, and the boracic acid is separated by evaporation. Lastly, the nitrate of ammonia may be decomposed by a low heat, and nitrate of potash or soda, if present, will remain in the vessel.

The other processes of separation, according to the indicated contents, are such as are commonly used by modern chemists.

Art. 16.—*On the Direction and Velocity of the Motion of the Sun and Solar System. By William Herschel. L. L. D. F. R. S.*

That the fixed stars do not preserve their relative positions, with regard to each other, but are subject to certain slow proper motions, has long been known to astronomers. We are in possession of a large arrangement of facts, determined by observation respecting the motions of our own planetary system; and much has been done to reduce the whole to the simple laws of gravitating bodies. From these facts, by analogy, it was easy to deduce, that the immensely distant luminous bodies in the heavens, are more probably kept asunder by motions which may be called projectile, than by the want of gravitating energy towards each other. The proper motions of the stars would naturally lead to a development of such considerations; and it is now many years since Dr. Herschel first published his speculations on this subject in the Philosophical Transactions. As long ago as the year 1783, he deduced from these motions a probability, that the sun and our planetary system have a motion to-

wards the star λ of the constellation Hercules. In the present Memoir he enters more fully into the subject. He states various considerations in favour of such a motion, from the analogy of the planets, from the sun's rotatory motion, from that of the variable stars; and he particularly avails himself of a calculation of the proper motions of the 36 stars in Dr. Maskelyne's Catalogue.

As this extensive treatise of the Doctor cannot be abridged by us within any admissible limit, we shall only mention the principles on which he has operated, and indicate so much of his results as may be sufficient to show their value.

If all the fixed stars were supposed to preserve invariably their absolute positions, and the solar system to be carried through space in a right line, the apparent situations of such as were too remote to have a sensible parallax, would remain unchanged; but the situations of stars less remote would alter, as if they were in motion in the contrary direction; that is to say, they would appear as if their motions had been performed in great circles, issuing from the point towards which our system was moved. And it would be right to admit, that the existence of a common centre or apex, from which all the moveable stars should be observed to direct their motions, constituted a proof that the planetary system had a motion towards that apex. For the ground of such an induction is the first rule of philosophizing, viz. that we ought rather to admit one simple motion in the planetary system, than to suppose these phænomena to arise from correspondent motions in a great number of bodies at immense distances from each other.

A second supposition may be made; namely, that the stars may have apparent motions in great circles, intersecting each other in a variety of situations, with no apex, common to three or more of them. In this case it would be more consonant to sound philosophy, to attribute the appearances to absolute motions in the stars themselves, than to ascribe to the planetary system that complexity of movement which would be required to account for the phænomena.

Thirdly, if neither of these cases were to obtain, but if (as is really found to happen) a considerable number of the stars should indicate a place in the heavens, from which they might appear to be moved, there would be grounds sufficiently strong for concluding, that the solar system is moved towards that region, and that any deviations from the case first mentioned ought to be ascribed to the absolute independent motions of the stars themselves.

The Doctor enters fully into the discussion of these particulars, and has adopted such a direction of the solar motion as leaves the least possible quantity to be allowed as the real motions of the several most remarkable stars. Into these we can-

not enter. The apex or point of the heavens to which our system is considered to move, lies in right ascension 245° 52′ 30″, and north polar distance 40° 22′.

Art. 17.—*On the Reproduction of Buds. By Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq. F.R.S.*

Every tree in the ordinary course of growth generates in each season those buds which expand in the succeeding spring; and these in many instances contain the whole of the leaves which appear in the following summer. But if these buds be destroyed previously to their expansion, other buds, in many species of trees, are generated, which perform the office of those which previously existed, except that they never afford fruit or blossoms.

Du Hamel conceived, that reproduced buds sprang from pre-organized germs; but the existence of such germs has never been proved; and it is well known, that buds may be produced from every part of the surface of many species of trees.

Other naturalists have supposed these reproductions to spring from the plexus of vessels which constitutes the internal bark; but Mr. Knight shows, that the sea cale *(crambe maritima)* can afford buds from the interior part of its woody substance, after the medullary matter within the stalk has decayed, and also that the potatoe possesses a similar power of reproducing its buds in parts where section by the knife has obviated every supposition of cortical substance. Observations on the apple-, pear-, and plum-tree also showed, that the buds shoot from the surface of the alburnum.

It was formerly shown by the author, that the alburnous tubes invariably join the central vessels at their termination upwards, and that these vessels, which appear to derive their origin from the alburnous tubes, convey nutriment, and probably give existence to new buds and leaves. From this, and also from the facility with which the rising sap is transferred from one side of a wounded tree to the other, which shows that the alburnous tubes possess lateral as well as terminal orifices, both which orifices, may possess the power to generate central vessels, since these vessels evidently feed, if they do not give existence to, the reproduced buds and leaves; and as his preceding experiments appear to prove that the buds neither spring from the medulla nor the bark, he is much inclined to believe they are generated by central vessels, which spring from the lateral orifices of the alburnous tubes.

His experimens to discover a similar power in seeds to regenerate their buds were not decisive; owing to the difficulty of ascertaining the number of buds previously existing within the seeds. Some biennials, nevertheless, possess under peculiar circumstances a very singular resource when all their buds have been destroyed. A turnip bred between the Swedish and

English variety, from which he had cut off the greater part of its fruit-stalks, and of which all the buds had been destroyed, remained some weeks in an apparently dormant state; after which the first seed in each pod germinated, and, bursting the seed-vessel, seemed to execute the office of a bud and leaves to the parent plant during the short remaining term of its existence, when its preternatural foliage perished with it.

[The other papers in our next.]

ART. III.—*Memoirs of Richard Cumberland, written by himself, containing an Account of his Life and Writings, interspersed with Anecdotes and Characters of several of the most distinguished Persons of his Time, with whom he has had Intercourse and Connexion. 4to, large Paper. 533 Pages, with four Portraits. Price 2l. 2s. Boards.* Lackington and Co. 1805.

THE task of the biographer is by no means easy. He who undertakes to write the life of another, will fail to succeed in proportion as his means of acquiring information and his judgment in disposing the same may prove defective. To form a proper estimate of the facts which compose the life of an individual, and to deduce from those facts his motives, his views, his acquisitions, and his talents:—to do this requires no less than that the biographer should have powers of mind and stores of information equal to those of his original. Numberless are the causes which tend to mislead the most acute and the most impartial; and, for the most part, excepting in dry matters of fact, the lives of heroes, poets, philosophers, and great men, are little better than fictions, which much oftener delineate the mental habits of the writer than the sources which gave celebrity to his subject. We seem to have a remedy for these causes of imperfection in the few instances where eminent men have written their own lives. But the remedy is perhaps merely seeming. The man who writes records of his own transactions, and the corresponding events and circumstances which have governed the course of his destiny, must not alone be candid and sincere: he must also possess the fortitude to relate such truths as his enemy would have rejoiced to detail: he should possess a portion of that uncommon discernment and candour which enable a man to speak so impartially of himself and his proceedings, as shall give credibility to his narrative, force to his deductions, and effect to the picture he delineates. If his vanity be prominent, he will offend; and if his outline be drawn with the cautious hand of modest reserve, he will leave too much to be supplied by his reader, and will seldom or never succeed in those masterly strokes of character that flow from the pen of the historian, when he sums up the actions of a man he venerates and admires.

A veteran in literature, after an active life of more than seventy years; at a period when hope is no longer young, and the energy of future schemes is depressed by the certainty of a contracted existence on earth; when consciousness of the past adds firmness to the character, and the nearer prospect of a future state gives animation to piety, while it takes largely from the timid respect we pay to surrounding men;—at this period it is that Richard Cumberland stands forth to be his own biographer. With marked solemnity he looks back to past scenes, and contemplates the task he has undertaken.

'I look into my heart; I search my understanding; I review my life, my labours, the talents I have been endowed with, and the uses I have put them to; and it shall be my serious study not to be guilty of any partial estimates, any false appreciation of that self, either as author or man, which of necessity must be made to fill so large a portion of the following pages. When from the date at which my history now pauses I look forward through a period of more than seventy and two years, I discover nothing within my horizon of which to be vain-glorious: no sudden heights to turn me giddy, no dazzling gleams of fortune's sunshine to bewilder me; nothing but one long laborious track, not often strewed with roses, and thorny, cold and barren towards the conclusion of it, where weariness wants repose, and age has need of comfort. I see myself unfortunately cast upon a lot in life neither congenial with my character, nor friendly to my peace; combating with dependence, disappointment and disgusts of various sorts, transplanted from a college within whose walls I had devoted myself to studies, which I pursued with ardent passion and a rising reputation, and what to obtain? what but the experience of difficulties, and the credit of overcoming them; the useful chastisement which unkindness has inflicted, and the conscious satisfaction of not having merited, nor in any one instance of my life revenged it?

'If I do not know myself, I am not fit to be my own biographer; and, if I do know myself, I am sure I never took delight in egotisms, and now, behold! I am self-devoted to deal in little else. Be it so! I will abide the consequences; I will not tell untruths to set myself out for better than I have been; but as I have not been overpaid by my contemporaries, I will not scruple to exact what is due to me from posterity. Ipse de me scribam. (Cic.)' p. 20.

Mr. Cumberland begins his narrative with a short account of his immediate ancestors, to whose piety, benevolence, and erudition, he refers as the ground of a justifiable vanity. Doctor Richard Cumberland, who was consecrated bishop of Peterborough in 1691, was his great grandfather. His grandfather, Richard Cumberland, the only son of bishop Cumberland, was rector of Peakirk in the diocese of Peterborough, and arch-deacon of Northampton. Richard, the eldest of two sons of the arch-deacon, died unmarried; and Denison, the younger, was the father of our author. He also was a clergyman, and, in possession of an independent fortune, was constantly devoted to

the duties of his function, in retirement and tranquillity, as rector of Stanwick in the county of Northampton. The famous Dr. Richard Bentley was his maternal grandfather. Of him Mr. Cumberland speaks with perfect recollection; and as his literary works are known to all, the present sketch is more particularly devoted to the doctor's private character. Amiable, kind, and indulgent to the infant vivacity of the narrator, communicative to the students around him, indulgent and sympathizing to modest merit in his examinations, acutely sensible to every human suffering, and in the possession of many estimable friends:—such was Bentley, whose life was that of unabated study, but who was social, serene, and equable in his temper. Joanna, the younger of Dr. Bentley's daughters, and the Phœbe of Byron's pastoral, was our author's mother. Of her accomplishments, her strength of intellect, and her steady piety, Mr. C. gives an affectionate picture, and acknowledges his early obligations to such an instructor.

The earlier period of Mr. Cumberland's life and education, first at Bury, afterwards at Westminster, and lastly at Cambridge, is dwelled upon with some detail. It was during his residence at Westminster that he first saw Garrick in the character of Lothario. The short account of this event will interest the reader, not only as a tale of times long past, but as a display of the author's manner in giving reality to his narrative.

'Quin played Horatio, Ryan Altamont, Mrs. Cibber Calista, and Mrs. Pritchard condescended to the humble part of Lavinia. I enjoyed a good view of the stage from the front row of the gallery, and my attention was riveted to the scene. I have the spectacle even now as it were before my eyes. Quin presented himself upon the rising of the curtain in a green velvet coat embroidered down the seams, an enormous full-bottomed periwig, rolled stockings and high-heeled square-toed shoes: with very little variation of cadence, and in a deep full tone, accompanied by a sawing kind of action, which had more of the senate than the stage in it, he rolled out his heroics with an air of dignified indifference, that seemed to disdain the plaudits that were bestowed upon him. Mrs. Cibber, in a key high-pitched, but sweet withal, sung or rather recitatived Rowe's harmonious strain, something in the manner of the improvisatories: it was so extremely wanting in contrast, that, though it did not wound the ear, it wearied it: when she had once recited two or three speeches, I could anticipate the manner of every succeeding one; it was like a long old legendary ballad of innumerable stanzas, every one of which is sung to the same tune, eternally chiming in the ear without variation or relief. Mrs. Pritchard was an actress of a different cast, had more nature and of course more change of tone, and variety both of action and expression: in my opinion the comparison was decidedly in her favour. But when after long and eager expectation I first beheld little Garrick, then young, and light and alive in every muscle and in every feature, come bounding on the stage, and pointing at the wittol Altamont and heavy-paced Horatio--heavens, what a transition!—it seemed as if a whole century had been stept over in the transition of a single scene; old things were

done away, and a new order at once brought forward, bright and luminous, and clearly destined to dispel the barbarisms and bigotry of a tasteless age, too long attached to the prejudice of custom, and superstitiously devoted to the illusions of imposing declamation. This heaven-born actor was then struggling to emancipate his audience from the slavery they were resigned to; and though at times he succeeded in throwing in some gleams of new-born light upon them, yet in general they seemed to *love darkness better than light*, and in the dialogue of altercation between Horatio and Lothario bestowed far the greater *show of hands* upon the master of the old school than upon the founder of the new. I thank my stars, my feelings in these moments led me right; they were those of nature, and therefore could not err.'—P. 59.

Mr. Cumberland was admitted of Trinity College, in Cambridge, in his fourteenth year, under the care of the rev. Dr. Morgan, and afterwards of Dr. Young, since bishop of Norwich. He describes his academical progress with considerable minuteness and interest; not only as to what personally relates to himself, but likewise to show the advantage of that course of instruction and mental discipline, of which the value seems to be less correctly estimated than it ought to be in the present age of superficial acquirement. On this head he very neatly and handsomely expresses himself.

'—and now if I have been seemingly too elaborate in tracing my own particular progress through these exercises, to which the candidate for a degree at Cambridge must of necessity conform, it is not merely because I can quote my privilege for my excuse, but because I would most earnestly impress upon the attention of my reader the extreme usefulness of these academical exercises and the studies appertaining to them, by which I consider all the purposes of an university education are completed; and so convinced am I of this, that I can hardly allow myself to call that an education, of which they do not make a part: if therefore I am to speak for the discipline of the schools, ought I not first to show that I am speaking from experience? without which opinions pass for nothing. Having therefore first demonstrated what my experience of that discipline has been, I have the authority of that, as far as it goes, for an opinion in its favour, which every observation of my life has since contributed to establish and confirm. What more can any system of education hold out to those who are the objects of it, than public honours to distinguish merit, public exercises to awaken emulation, and public examinations, which cannot be passed without extorting some exertion even from the indolent, nor can be avoided without a marked disgrace to the *compounder?* Now, if I have any knowledge of the world, any insight into the minds and characters of those whom I have had opportunities of knowing (and few have lived more and longer amongst mankind), all my observations tend to convince me that there is no profession, no art, no station or condition in life, to which the studies I have been speaking of will not apply, and come in aid with profit and advantage. That mode of investigation, step by step, which crowns the process of the student by the demonstration and discovery of positive and mathematical truth, must of necessity so exercise and train him in the habits of following up his subject,

be it what it may, and working out his proofs, as cannot fail to find their uses, whether he, who has them, dictates from the pulpit, argues at the bar, or declaims at the senate; nay, there is no lot, no station (I repeat it with confidence), be it either social or sequestered, conspicuous or obscure, professional or idly independent, in which the man once exercised in these studies, though he shall afterwards neglect them, will not to his comfort experience some mental powers and resources, in which their influence shall be felt, though the channels that conducted it may from disuse have become obscure, and no longer to be traced.' P. 80.

Having at an age more than commonly early obtained his bachelor's degree, Mr. C. continued to pursue his studies with ardour, on the supposition that his life was to be devoted to the sacred profession of his ancestors. But this intention and course was interrupted, and at length entirely set aside, by offers bearing relation to the government. Concerning the dates relative to this, and indeed to almost all the events narrated in the present work, the reader is left to conjecture, with difficulty, epochas so striking in themselves that the author might certainly have given them with ease. When the county of Northampton was hotly canvassed by the rival parties of Knightly and Hanbury, the earl of Halifax being then high in office and lord lieutenant of the county, Mr. Cumberland's father joined the whigs, and gave them very active and effectual support; and some time afterwards, when the author's academical expectations were of the most promising nature, an offer was made by lord Halifax of the situation of his private confidential secretary; which was accepted without hesitation. We must refer the reader to the Memoirs for a considerable and not unentertaining account of characters, circumstances, and transactions which took place during Mr. Cumberland's connexion with and dependance upon the earl. It appears, however, that the natural turn of mind of the author, as well as his acquired habits, were little calculated to produce advantage in the vicinity of a court; and the connexion upon the whole was to him productive of none. Among the other personages which appear before us during this period, the most prominent are the celebrated Bub Doddington, since lord Melcombe, and his visitors at East Bury in Dorsetshire.

About this time (which by indirect circumstances we find to have been in 1756 or 1757*) the author wrote his first legitimate drama, in five acts, entitled The Banishment of Cicero; which was published, but has now been long out of print. The author gives a short review of it. By lord Halifax's personal introduction it was put into Garrick's hands, who after a day or two returned it as unfit for the stage.

On the 19th of February, 1759, Mr. Cumberland married the

* The context shows that there must have been an error of the press in the date of the bishop of Gloucester's letter, at page 150, of which the year is 1767 instead of 1757.

daughter of George Ridge, esq.; and in the following year, upon the accession of the present king, the earl of Halifax being appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland, he held the secondary post of under secretary, with possession of the entire confidence of his lordship; William Gerard Hamilton being the chief secretary. Concerning this gentleman, as the probable author of the Letters of Junius, Mr. Cumberland makes the following remark:

'When I was called in jointly with secretary Hamilton to take the project and rough copy of this speech (the opening speech of the lord lieutenant) into consideration, I could not help remarking the extraordinary efforts which that gentleman made to engraft his own very peculiar style upon the sketch before him; in this I sometimes agreed with him, but more commonly opposed him, till lord Halifax, whose patience began to be exhausted, no longer submitted his copy to be dissected, but took it to himself with such alterations as he saw fit to adopt, and those but few. I must candidly acknowledge, that at times when I have heard people searching for internal evidence in the style of Junius as to the author of those famous letters, I have called to recollection this circumstance, which I have now related, and occasionally said that the style of Junius bore a strong resemblance to what I had observed of the style of secretary Hamilton: beyond this I never had the least grounds for conjecture, nor any clue to lead me to the discovery of that anonymous writer beyond what I have alluded to.'—P. 164.

There is a designed obscurity in the author's narrative in what relates to the decline of lord Halifax; and the author appears to have his own reasons for not entering far into the politics of that time. As usual, he introduces us to a number of characters of different casts and degrees of celebrity which came under his observation. Very late in the lord-lieutenantship of the earl of Halifax the bishopric of Clonfert became vacant, and was bestowed on the author's father. When lord Halifax received the seals of secretary of state, Mr. Cumberland tendered his services; which were declined, and he became secretary to the board of trade,—an office which, requiring no great labour, left him time to indulge his propensities to such studies as were most suited to his inclination. He wrote, but when is not precisely said, his Summer's Tale, an opera, or, as he calls it, a vehicle for songs, which were set to music by composition and compilation, by Simpson the hautboy player who conducted the band at Covent Garden. The author gave his ninth night to the theatrical fund, then recently established. He speaks with little commendation of this piece, which was performed nine or ten nights, and excited the enmity of Bickerstaff the opera-writer against its author.

We shall decline following our author to Ireland on a visit to his father, and must merely mention that his comedy of The Brothers was brought out at Covent Garden the winter following, and he became acquainted with Garrick. In the ensuing year he again visited Ireland, where he wrote The West Indian; respecting which the work before us affords some observations which will

be read with interest; and the subsequent particulars relating to its appearance at Drury Lane are no less attractive.

At this period it was that Mr. Cumberland undertook to defend the reputation of his grandfather Bentley against an offensive passage in a pamphlet of bishop Lowth against Warburton, in which he steps aside to represent Dr. Bentley as a mere verbal critic, deficient in matters of taste and elegant literature, and says he was *aut caprimulgus aut fossor*. Mr. Cumberland's pamphlet, entitled Animadversions, &c. went through two editions.

As the remainder of this production will introduce personages and things more immediately connected with times in the recollection of readers of the present day, we must postpone the remainder of our analysis, and conclude, for the present, with quoting an incident wherein the scrupulous candour of the writer appears to have been not a little detrimental to his fortune.

'I return to my narrative—I had a house in Queen-Anne-street West, at the corner of Wimpole-street, I lived there many years; my friend Mr. Fitzherbert lived in the same street, and Mr. Burke nearly opposite to me. I was surprised one morning at an early hour by a visit from an old clergyman, the rev. Decimus Reynolds. I knew there was such a person in existence, and that he was the son of bishop Reynolds by my father's aunt, and of course his first cousin; but I had never seen him to my knowledge in my life, and he came now at an hour when I was so particularly engaged, that I should have denied myself to him but that he had called once or twice before and been disappointed of seeing me. I had my office papers before me, and my wife was making my tea, that I might get down to Whitehall in time for my business, and the coach was waiting at the door. He was shown into the room; a more uncouth person, habit, and address, was hardly to be met with; he advanced, stopt and stood staring with his eyes fixed upon me for some time; when, putting his hand into a pocket in the lining of the breast of his coat, he drew out an old packet of paper, rolled up and tied with whip-cord, and very ceremoniously desired me to peruse it. I begged to know what it was; for it was a work of time to unravel the knots—he replied—"My will." And what am I to do with your will, sir?—"My heir—" Well, sir, and who is your heir? (I really did not understand him)—"Richard Cumberland—look to the date—left it to you twenty years ago—my whole estate—real and personal—come to town on purpose—brought up my title deeds—put them into your hands—sign a deed of gift, and make them over to you hard and fast."

'All this while I had not looked at his will; I did not know he had any property; or, if he had, I had no guess where it laid, nor did I so much as know whereabouts he lived. In the mean time he delivered himself in so strange a style, by starts and snatches, with long pauses and strong sentences, that I suspected him to be deranged; and I saw by the expression of my wife's countenance, that she was under the same suspicion also. I now cast my eye upon the will; I found my name there as his heir under a date of twenty years past: it was therefore no sudden caprice, and I conjured him to tell me if he had any cause of quarrel or displeasure with his nearer relations. Upon this

he sat down, took some time to compose himself, (for he had been greatly agitated,) and, having recovered his spirits, answered me deliberately and calmly, that he had no immediate matter of offence with his relations, but he had no obligations to them of any sort, and had been entirely the founder of his own fortune, which by marriage he had acquired and by œconomy improved. I stated to him that my friend and cousin Mr. Richard Reynolds of Paxton in Huntingdonshire was his natural heir, and a man of most unexceptionable worth and good character; he did not deny it, but he was wealthy and childless, and he had bequeathed it to me, as his will could testify, twenty years ago, as being the representative of the maternal branch of his family: in fine he required of me to accompany him to my conveyancer, and direct a positive deed of gift to be drawn up, for which purpose he had brought his title deeds with him, and should leave them in my hands. He added in further vindication of his motives, that my father had ever been his most valued friend, that he had constantly watched my conduct and scrutinized my character, although he had not seen any occasion to establish any personal acquaintance with me. Upon this explanation, and the evidence of his having inherited no atom of his fortune from his paternal line, I accepted his bounty so far as to appoint the next morning for calling on Mr. Heron, who then had chambers in Gray's Inn, when I would state the case to him, and refer myself to his judgment and good counsel. The result of my conference with the lately deceased sir Richard Heron was the insertion of a clause of resumption, empowering the donor to revoke his deed at any future time when he should see fit, and this clause I particularly pointed out to my benefactor when he signed the deed.

'It was with difficulty I prevailed upon him to admit it, and can witness to the uneasiness it gave him, whilst he prophetically said I had left him exposed to the solicitations and remonstrances of his nephews; and that the time might come, when, in the debility of age and irresolution of mind, he might be pressed into a revocation of what he had decided upon as the most deliberate act of his life.

'My kind old friend stood a long siege before he suffered his prediction to take place; for it was not till nearly ten years of uninterrupted cordiality, that, weak and wearied out by importunities, he capitulated with his besiegers, and, sending his nephew into my house in Queen-Ann-street, unexpectedly one morning, surprised me with a demand, that I would render back the whole of his title deeds. I delivered them up exactly as I had received them; his messenger put them into his hackney coach and departed.'—P. 238.

[The conclusion of this review in our next.] 131

ART. IV.—*Adeline Mowbray, or The Mother and Daughter, a Tale. In* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo. By Mrs. Opie. Price* 13*s.* 6*d.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THE physical and moral causes of those events which continually take place around us, are subjects for investigation to which we are necessarily driven by the circumstances in which we are

placed. All men are constantly employed in observing and arranging facts, and making such deductions as may direct their conduct, to increase their enjoyments and diminish the probabilities of suffering. General maxims are the most seductive rules of action. When few in number, and striking in their application, they will be adopted with avidity, and applied till habit shall have made it difficult to distinguish that imperfection which arises from their abstract nature, and renders them inapplicable to most of the cases of real life. Theorists in morals are most disposed to deal in maxims; practical moralists give preference to the more empirical method of attending to characters and particular facts. A first-rate Theorist in the unqualified application of general deductions to the particular conduct of life, gave the world, a few years ago, his work on political justice, which shone for a moment, was taken up with ardour by a certain class, and almost as speedily abandoned, not only by the disciples of that system but by the candour and more matured reason of the author himself; whose subsequent publications and practice have shown how little the rules he had laid down are calculated to be carried into effect, among such beings as men now are, and most probably will in many respects ever continue to be.

Among the class of those whom we have called empirical moralists, Mrs. Opie exerts herself in the present tale, and endeavours, by the display of fictitious incidents and persons, to show a part of the numerous evils which would arise from an adoption of one of his laws of political justice; namely, that in which he affirms all contracts and promises to be immoral, and more especially that contract which the habits, convictions, and experience of many nations and many ages have pronounced to be indispensable between the sexes. The outline of her tale is as follows:

In an old family mansion in Gloucestershire, resided Mrs. Mowbray and Adeline her only child. During the childhood and younger days of Mrs. M. she had devoted herself to that unprofitable study in which the reveries of the mind are applied to deduce conclusions very remotely allied to the transactions of society. To her, whatever was bold and uncommon seemed new and wise: and every succeeding theory held her imagination captive, till its power was weakened by one of equal claims to singularity. Adeline Mowbray had her education under this mother; but by the cares of her grandmother she was not equally defective in those acquisitions which contribute to the œconomy, regularity, and comfort of domestic life. This young lady grew up active, accomplished, and truly amiable; but at the same time attached, with all the early enthusiasm of a virtuous mind, to principles calculated to ensure misfortune and distress to her future life.

'One author in particular, by a train of reasoning, captivating

though sophistical, and plausible though absurd, made her a delighted convert to his opinions, and prepared her young and impassioned heart for the practice of vice, by filling her mind, ardent in the love of virtue, with new and singular opinions on the subject of moral duty. On the works of this writer, Adeline had often heard her mother descant in terms of the highest praise; but she did not feel herself so completely his convert on her own conviction, till she had experienced the fatal fascination of his style, and had been conveyed by his bewitching pen, from the world as it is, into the world as it ought to be.

'This writer, whose name was Glenmurray, among other institutions, attacked the institution of marriage; and after having elaborately pointed out its folly and its wickedness, he drew so delightful a picture of the superior purity, as well as happiness, of an union cemented by no ties but those of love and honour, that Adeline, wrought to the highest pitch of enthusiasm for a new order of things, entered into a solemn compact with herself to act, when she was introduced into society, according to the rules laid down by this writer.' P. 34.

Mrs. Mowbray had visited London soon after her marriage, but with very little satisfaction, at finding that her provincial importance, and the still greater importance which she attached to her mental endowments, did not produce any striking effect on that great theatre. She had therefore been content to shine in the circle of her own local connections and friends during the life of her husband, and until her daughter had arrived at an age to attract admiration. At this period she repaired to Bath, still beautiful at the age of thirty-eight, with her daughter Adeline, who is described as possessing not that beauty which a painter might delineate, but all those nameless indications of physiognomy which display the mind, and create attachments stronger and more lasting than mere beauty can claim.

At Bath these ladies meet Glenmurray the author;—a man possessing all the energies of virtue and of sentiment, but proscribed by society as the advocate of vice. The ladies become acquainted with him. An attachment takes place between Glenmurray and Adeline; and the mother marries sir Patrick O'Carrol, a young Irishman of family, with an encumbered estate, and possessing no principles in the least capable of opposing his passions, which at any price he was determined to gratify. It is not to be supposed that these events are brought about with all the rapidity which a Reviewer must adopt in his analysis. A considerable number of pages is employed in narration and incident, which lead to the terminations we have here related. Sir Patrick, who is determined to possess Adeline's person, without giving himself much trouble about her consent, removes his bride and her daughter to the country-seat of one of his acquaintance, and carries certain arrangements into effect which very nearly complete Adeline's ruin, and compel her to fly from the house. At this critical instant Glenmurray appears. With him she de-

parts, intending to embark with him to Lisbon, to which place he was about to repair for the recovery of his health. It must be understood, that during her increasing intimacy with Glenmurray, his attachment for Adeline, and his wish to secure for her all that respect which society can bestow, had led him to propose their union by marriage. Her affection was equally strong; but her high sense of moral principle, and the instructions she had imbibed from Glenmurray's writings, produced a firm decision against the crime of marriage. After her elopement she becomes to him as a wife; and the first consequences are, that on meeting with an amiable English family at Lisbon, who esteem Glenmurray, the difficulties of introducing the partner of his heart to the best intercourses of social life, with the mortifying apprehension of her being considered in a light of degradation, compel him to adopt the remedy of a speedy departure to avoid the attentions of his friends. In their journey through France, another event of the same description, but differently modified as to the characters of the persons, very nearly involves Glenmurray in a duel. The ladies of this second party undertake to reason with Adeline, in order to persuade her to marriage; but a letter arrives from England, describing the state of Adeline's mother, distressed and in solitude, after being deprived at once of her daughter and her newly espoused husband, who in the pursuit of Adeline and Glenmurray fell overboard as he was going to embark for Lisbon: and the receipt of this letter compels her and her lover to hasten to England.

Adeline obtains an interview with her mother. Their meeting is pathetically drawn, and the workings of contrary passions agitating the mother and the daughter are displayed with no small degree of interest. The mother is strongly urged by affection for her child; but the remaining sentiment of jealousy and aversion for her daughter, on which she had brooded during the existence of her late husband, and her indignation at the disgraceful state that daughter had chosen for herself, prevail over the softer emotions. In the phrensy of passion she renounces her by a solemn oath, until she shall be no less wretched in love and disgraced in the eyes of the world than she herself has been, or until she shall be on her deathbed.

Adeline continues in England with her lover, gradually driven into seclusion and privacy by the reaction of that world whose cold reproving eye confers a disgrace not to be withstood by any human being. Numerous incidents, which are well told but by no means difficult to be imagined, tend to increase this anxious pressure. The health of Glenmurray, which from the first is described as affected by consumption, becomes worse and worse. The failure of a banker cuts off one half-year's revenue, and produces other privations and distresses which are greatly aggravated by the consideration that Glenmurray's income consists only in a life interest, and that his death must leave the object of

his affections abandoned by her parent, disgraced by the world, destitute of the common means of subsistence, and on the eve of giving birth to a pledge of their love.

At length Glenmurray dies; and the grief of Adeline terminates in distraction, which continues for several months. In our hasty attention to the main story, we could not insert any of those under circumstances which prepare the mind, and are indispensably required to connect the leading incidents. One faithful attendant, deeply indebted to Adeline for an effort of sublime virtue performed in her favour, remains permanently fixed to her service. Berrendale, a cousin of Glenmurray, to whom that unhappy man had directed his thoughts during his last illness as the future protector and husband of Adeline, furnishes the needful supplies; and on her recovery she determines, and makes the attempt, to support herself by establishing an infant school in the vicinity of the metropolis. Success at first attends her; but when her late situation with Glenmurray comes to be publicly known, she is obliged to abandon the attempt, and decides to marry Berrendale. By him she has a daughter;—but Berrendale was not Glenmurray. Selfish, fretful, and void of all those habitual sensibilities which constitute the refinement of principle, he could not become the possessor of Adeline's heart. Unwilling to face the eye of the world with the generous endeavour that Adeline by her virtues should claim respect in the character of his wife, he shrinks from every opportunity of introducing her; and at length when a visit to Jamaica, where his property lies, becomes necessary, he leaves her in England, and some time afterwards marries a rich lady of that colony.

We shall not state the events which take place between this period and her departure for her mother's residence in Cumberland. Insults and proposals, originating from the past circumstances of her life, occupy the narrative till her arrival there. Her husband is taken off by death, his property being first secured to her child. Unknown to her mother, who, having heard of the death of Glenmurray, is affectionately occupied in endeavours to find her out, and who long ago had been prevented from reconciliation by the treacherous interference of a dependant relation, she fixes her abode near her mother's residence, where, indisposed and exhausted with weakness, she writes a letter to be delivered to her mother after her death. Previous to this event Mrs. Mowbray, who had been taught active virtue by the hand of affliction, and was in the habit of visiting the distressed poor in her neighbourhood, called at the cottage where her daughter lay. The unfinished letter,—the reproachful exclamations of the faithful servant,—her daughter in a state of insensibility;—the whole scene astonishes and agonizes the wretched parent. But joy succeeds when Adeline again recovers from her fainting. Impassioned explanations take place. Tranquillity and happiness again appear in prospect. But the prospect proves delusive. The heavy

pressure of misery had too effectually crushed this victim of error. For a few days she languished ;—the hand of death put an end to her sufferings.

After this full, though necessarily imperfect, analysis of Mrs. Opie's novel, it must be concluded that it holds a considerable rank in our estimation. The language is simple and appropriate, the situations frequently marked and often affecting, and the characters indicate much acute observation of the human mind. We cannot speak with equal commmendation of the plot. The tale indeed is simple, but it falls short in unity of effect. Neither the personages nor the incidents are so drawn as to constitute a great and striking whole. No strong excitement of hope or fear takes place from the gradual development of the story; and little of anxiety is excited by the skill of concealment. We might also add, that the singularity of the moral to common apprehension, and the little danger of the fair sex offending against the established rules of society, from motives founded on abstract reasoning, tend to diminish the interest of the story. But we have no wish to urge this point ; as the author has shown powers of imagination, as well as of argument, more than sufficient to fix the attention of her readers.

ART. V.—*Conversations on Chemistry, in which the Elements of that Science are familiarly explained and illustrated by Experiments. In Two Volumes,* 12*mo. With* 11 *Outline Plates. Price* 14*s.* Longman and Co. 1805.

As the attention of the public becomes more generally directed to objects of science, and their useful applications to the various purposes of life are more universally admitted, the activity of lecturers, instrument makers, and writers, will be proportionally increased. The experimental sciences have now become a part of our system of education, and a number of treatises have, within a very few years, been published to facilitate the acquirement of them. The author of the present work, a lady, has undertaken to render the science of chemistry familiar to younger students, in a number of conversations in the way of question and answer; not exactly in the dry form of compositions which we remember to have been in request forty or fifty years ago, but with somewhat more of art, in which the questioner is made to propose such difficulties for solution, as the author herself may have recollected in the course of her own studies.

The first volume is occupied by eleven conversations relating to the simple bodies. In the first conversation she treats of the general principles of bodies; namely, light, caloric, oxygen, hydrogen, four acidifiable bases, two alkalies, ten earths, and twenty-five metals. She first concisely explains the chemical attractions,

and then gives an account of light and heat. Herschel's discovery of the different refrangibility of the radiant and calorific rays of the sun is stated, to show the difference between light and heat; both which the author does not hesitate to consider as actual bodies. The expansions of heated substances are shown by the pyrometer and by narrow-necked vessels containing fluids, and leading to the explanation and use of the common thermometer, to which that of Wedgwood's is added. We have likewise the reflection of heat according to the experiment of professor Pictet, or rather of the academy del Cimento. These subjects, being of much interest and importance, are continued in the third conversation. The conducting powers of bodies with regard to heat are next considered, with an explanation of the coverings and clothing of animals,—considerable attention being paid to the experiments of count Rumford. Ebullition, evaporation, with the production and appearances of steam, are clearly and instructively detailed, and the most popular and striking experiments are given to elucidate the general laws of heat.

The fourth conversation is still occupied with the subject of heat. That which has been called the capacity of different bodies for heat, is explained in the way of mechanical allusion. We must observe, however, that the experiment of heating lead, chalk, and milk, by putting them in an oven, where it is stated that they will acquire the common temperature in the order in which their names are here given, is not a case in point with regard to the capacities. It merely relates to their conducting powers; and indeed the whole of the following ten pages contains an obscure attempt to explain what the common method of determining the capacities of bodies, by mixing them with or immersing them in water, would much more simply and perspicuously have elucidated. From this subject the author proceeds to treat of the differences of capacity of water and other bodies in the solid, fluid, and vaporous states; whence the transition to the theory of artificial congelations is easy. The development of heat by the addition of sulphuric acid to muriate of lime, which by change of combination assumes the solid state, as well as those augmentations of temperature which take place when liquids and other substances suddenly combine with each other, are also noticed; and lastly the calorimeter of Lavoisier, and the consideration of caloric as an element or ingredient in bodies, conclude the author's disquisitions on the subject. Little is said on this last doctrine; but the doubts of chemists respecting the existence of heat as a separate body are incidentally mentioned.

Conversation V. is employed on oxigen and nitrogen, the composition of the atmosphere, combustion, oxigenation, oxides, the preparation of oxigen gas and its powerful effect in combustions of metals and other bodies. The next conversation is occupied with hydrogen, its extrication, experiments on its combustibility, its detonation, the production of water, &c. Sulphur,

phosphorus, carbon, and the metals, follow in succession; into the detail of which we need not enter. The experienced chemist will recollect the many interesting phænomena which these substances present, and from which our author has judiciously selected those which are best calculated to excite curiosity, and give proper notions of the elementary doctrines of chemistry. The first volume is concluded with an account of the earths.

Vol. II. is occupied upon compound bodies. A conversation is given upon the elective attractions and affinities, which, being short, must necessarily exclude many particulars respecting their laws. A plan so very popular as that of the present work does not indeed admit of much investigation into a subject so subtle, so abstracted, and indeed so obscure; yet we cannot help thinking that the ingenious author has directed her talents less immediately to the familiar explanation of this subject than it deserves. The doctrines of heat, the phænomena of combustion, and the laws of combination, constitute the theory under which all chemical facts must be stated, in order that they may be explained and understood. She has successfully generalized the two first, and we recommend her to bestow the same attention, in a future edition, on the latter.

The properties of compound bodies, with regard to the mineral kingdom, are explained in the four succeeding conversations; namely, acids in general; sulphur and phosphorus with their acids and saline compounds; nitrogen and carbon with their acids and compounds; and also the muriatic acid in its common and oxygenated form, with its effects and compounds. The nature and composition of vegetables as to their functions, elements, and immediate analysis; their decomposition by the spontaneous process called fermentation; and the history of vegetation, or the direct processes of nature in the organized subject, follow next in order. From vegetables our author proceeds to the composition of animal bodies; their principal materials; organic structure; animalization, respiration, and nutrition; animal heat, and the nature of various products afforded by the subjects of this kingdom.

The preceding account is sufficiently full to give the reader a general notion of what is to be expected from this work. We shall only add that the explanations are perspicuous and clear, the style simple and easy, and we do not hesitate to recommend it as an useful and entertaining performance for young beginners, and others who are desirous of making the first advances in the study of chemistry. The plates are engraved by Lowry; and though they are mere outlines, yet, by the truth of perspective and judicious adaptation of their several parts, they answer all the purposes of finished designs, and have no slight claim to elegance.

ART. VI.—*Leonora. By Miss Edgeworth. In Two Vols.* 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Johnson.

IN the early periods of life we are principally governed by our sensations. Every thing is novelty, every scene can charm, and every incident has its effect. As we advance in the career of existence our habits become mature, and we learn to discriminate. It is not then that events are striking merely because they were not expected. Fastidiousness of selection limits our scale of enjoyment, and the attention of the cultivated mind is no longer to be riveted by common-place characters or indiscriminate comparisons. Still at this middle age, when the power of imagination is most active, though the discernment of criticism may be only in progress to maturity, we continue to be charmed by persons, situations, and the concatenation of events, brought before us with little of preparation or art in their immediate connection. A third period afterwards steals upon us, in which memory can refer to its stores of experience, or reading, for all the various relations of affection, endearment, terror, distress, in which man can be placed with regard to society. Our modes of thinking seem to undergo a correspondent change. Instead of striking prominent facts and highly-wrought situations, we become more attentive to the construction of style, refinement of allusion, and minute discrimination of character. We find it easier to dissertate than to feel and to invent; the head is active, but not the heart. It has frequently befallen us to observe this progress in the compositions of writers on subjects of imagination, and more particularly in novels or romances; which the present age appears disposed to subject to laws considerably resembling those of the drama. Miss Edgeworth, with great original powers of mind, improved and improving by the best discipline of moral and physical investigation, appears in her former productions to have seized the characters of life as they stood before her, with very little of exertion beyond the exercise of that cultivated taste which seizes at once what deserves to be preferred. In those tales we saw what may be called an abundance of business. In the novel before us the course of events is more uniform. One great outline distinguishes the whole composition. The effects are simple; the causes remote, complicated, and requiring to be developed by abstractions, which none but a master of the finest springs of human action might dare to clothe in the form of living characters with any hope of success. In the hand of a writer of less genius and animation this novel would have been a series of tame and obscure dissertations. In hers the characters appear to live, and, from our reflections on the distinguishing shades of each, we are led to imagine that we could, from our own knowledge, add touches to each that would confirm the resemblance.

The leading events are given in the form of letters. Lady Leo-

nora L. is the daughter of a duchess, and married to a man of rank. She corresponds with her mother. Both the mother and daughter are highly amiable, virtuous, and accomplished. Lady L. is charmed with the talents and sensibility of lady Olivia; whose story is, that she married early, in the fond expectation of meeting a heart suited to her own; but, cruelly disappointed, she found merely a husband. She scorned dissimulation, and separating from him retired to the sublime scenes of Switzerland,—where, by metaphysics and German novels, her mind became settled into a pleasing pensive melancholy. In this state of separation, left to that most insidious of counsellors her own heart—her own weak heart—it was her misfortune to meet with a man of a soul congenial to her own. Before she saw her danger she was entangled beyond the possibility of escape. Virtue commanded her to be miserable, and she was miserable * * * *. This short state of the lady's mind and circumstances, as sentimentally displayed by herself in two letters to lady Leonora, explains that part of her adventures which had happened previous to her return; when she had the surprise and mortification to find that the dignity of English manners was in opposition to her being received in society.—Lady Leonora was charmed with the open, candid, and brilliant account she gave of the superiority of her mind, her affections, her virtue, and her purity of conduct, over the common-place sentiments and prejudices of ordinary minds. She saw her mistakes, but she saw them as the mistakes of a superior mind. She boldly stood forth in her favour, as an innocent victim of calumny, and invited her to pass some time at Mrs. L.'s country seat. The letters of lady Olivia are communicated to lady Leonora's mother, the duchess of ——, in an epistle explaining the motives of lady L. for countenancing her new friend. The answer of the duchess strongly points out the errors of lady Olivia, not as the proofs of an affectionate heart and superior abilities, but as the exhibition of vice and folly, theoretically systematized and carried into effect by the pretenders to reform. These arguments of the anxious and indulgent mother are combated by her amiable daughter, whose invitation to Olivia had been given before the objections were made. As it is a necessary part of the œconomy of a novel which is related in the form of letters, that the reader should be put in possession of a sufficient number from all quarters, the correspondence between Leonora and her mother here makes a pause, and lady Olivia appears on the stage, with somewhat less of disguise, in a correspondence between her and madame de P. at Paris. Madame de P. appears to be a lady of Parisian accomplishment, in all the gallantry and intrigue of old France, with the addition of those modern improvements which the doctrines of the revolution have added. The same character may be applied to lady Olivia, but the author has kept them distinct from each other. The French coquet, voluptuary, and intriguante, is drawn as a

different being from the English proselyte. With a mind distempered by false sentiments, false morals, and an attachment to pleasure, lady Olivia is the pupil of romance; in principle depraved, but to a certain degree sincere: but madame de P., from circumstances, education, disposition, placed in the midst of a scene of seductive depravity, seems never to have had any principles at all. To this friend it is that Olivia relates the new intimacy she has formed.

General B. makes his appearance as the correspondent of Mr. L., the husband of Olivia; and as the events at the Castle require to be told by a third person, Mrs. C., a visitor of Leonora, writes to her friend miss B. These two last-mentioned under-characters, like the others in the piece, possess their own distinct originality. The general is a man of honour and discernment, and Mrs. C. is a young married lady of sense, free from all affectation, and of a lively disposition. The reader will not be displeased if we insert one of her letters in this place.

'My dear Margaret, why is not your name Matilda, or Seraphina, or Adelina? How can any body of the name of Margaret be amiable or estimable, or a fit correspondent for a person of delicate sensibility? Stay; I am wrong, and you are fit to be written to, provided you style yourself Marguerite; for then you know you are a pearl, and a daisy, as well as a woman, and I may go back to Chaucer and the fourteenth century; or, further still, to the Troubadours and the Provençals, and I may say the finest things imaginable about the *eye of day*, and the worship of the daisy, and the burthen of my song may be

'Si douce est la Marguerite.'

'Having now had the honour of spending nearly a week in the society of the celebrated enchantress, lady Olivia, you will naturally expect that I should be much improved in the art of love: but before I come to my improvements, I must tell you what will be rather more interesting,—that Leonora is perfectly well and happy, and that I have the dear delight of exclaiming ten times an hour, "Ay, just as I thought it would be!—Just such a wife, just such a mother, just such a mistress of a family, I knew she would make."

'"*Not to admire*" is an art or a precept which I have not been able to practise much since I came here. Some philosophers tell us that admiration is not only a silly but a fatiguing state of mind; and I suppose that nothing could have preserved my mind from being tired to death, but the quantity of bodily exercise which I have taken. I could if I pleased give you a plan and elevation of this castle. Nay, I doubt not but I could stand an examination in the catalogue of the pictures, or the inventory of the furniture.

'You, Helen!—you who could not remember the colour of lady N.'s *new* curtains after you had seen them at least a hundred times!

'Lady N. was indifferent to me, and how could I hang up her curtains in my memory? By what could they hold? Do not you know, Margaret . . . . all the fine things that I could say, and that quartoes have said before me, about the association of ideas and sensations, &c.? Those we love impart to uninteresting objects the power of pleasing,

as the magnet can communicate to inert metal its attractive influence.

'Till Mr. L*** was Leonora's lover I never liked him much. I do not mean to call him inert. I always knew that he had many excellent qualities, but there was nothing in his temper peculiarly agreeable to me, and there was something in his character that I did not thoroughly understand; yet since he is become Leonora's husband I find my understanding much improved, and I dare say it will soon be so far enlarged that I shall comprehend him perfectly.

'Leonora has almost persuaded me to like lady Olivia. Not to laugh at her would be impossible. I wish you could see the way in which we go on together. Our first setting out would have diverted you. Enter lady Olivia breathless, with an air of theatric expectation—advances to embrace Helen, who is laughing with Leonora—her back turned towards the side of the stage at which Olivia enters—Olivia pauses suddenly, and measures Helen *with a long look*. What passed in lady Olivia's mind at this moment I do not know, but I guess that she was disappointed wofully by my appearance. After some time she was recovered, by Leonora's assistance, from her reverie, and presently began to admire my vivacity, and to find out that I was Clarissa's miss Howe—no, I was lady G.—no, I was Heloisa's Clara: but I, choosing to be myself, and insisting upon being an *original*, sunk again visibly and rapidly in Olivia's opinion, till I was in imminent danger of being *nobody*. Leonora again kindly interposed to save me from annihilation; and after an interval of an hour or two dedicated to letter-writing, lady Olivia returned and seated herself beside me, resolved to decide what manner of woman I was. Certain novels are the touchstones of feeling and *intellect* with certain ladies. Unluckily I was not well read in these; and in the questions put to me from these sentimental statute-books, I gave strange judgments, often for the husband or parents against the heroine. I did not even admit the plea of destiny, irresistible passion or *entraînement*, as in all cases sufficient excuse for all errors and crimes. Moreover, I excited astonishment by calling things by obsolete names. I called a married woman's having a lover *a crime!* Then I was no judge of virtues, for I thought a wife's making an intimate friend of her husband's mistress was scandalous and mean; but this I was told is the height of delicacy and generosity. I could not perceive the propriety of a man's liking two women at the same time, or a woman's having a platonic attachment for half a dozen lovers; and I owned that I did not wish divorce could be as easily obtained in England as in France. All which proved that I have never been out of England—a great misfortune! I dare say it will soon be discovered that women as well as madeira cannot be good for any thing till they have crossed the line. But beside the obloquy of having lived only the best company in England, I was further disgraced by the discovery, that I am deplorably ignorant of metaphysics, and have never been enlightened by any philanthropic transcendental foreign professor of humanity. Profoundly humiliated, and not having yet taken the first step towards knowledge, the knowing that I was ignorant, I was pondering upon my sad fate, when lady Olivia, putting her hand upon my shoulder, summoned me into the court of Love, there in my own proper person to answer such questions as it should please her ladyship to ask. For instance:—

'Were you ever in love?—How often?—When?—Where?—And with whom?

'Never having stood a cross-examination in public upon these points, I was not quite prepared to reply; and I was accused of giving evasive answers, and convicted of blushing. Mr. L., who was present at this examination, enjoyed, in his grave way, my astonishment and confusion, but said not one word. I rallied my spirits and my wits, and gave some answers which gained the smile of the court on my side.

'From these specimens you may guess, my dear Margaret, how well this lady and I are likely to agree. I shall divert myself with her absurdities without scruple. Yet notwithstanding the flagrancy of these, Leonora persuades me to think well of Olivia; indeed I am so happy here, that it would be a difficult matter at present to make me think ill of any body. The good qualities which Leonora sees in her are not yet visible to my eyes; but Leonora's visual orb is so cleared with charity and love, that she can discern what is not revealed to vulgar sight. Even in the very germe she discovers the minute form of the perfect flower. *The Olivia* will, I hope, in time blow out in full perfection. 'Yours affectionately,

'HELEN C———.' Vol. i. p. 79.

Lady Olivia had before expressed her dissatisfaction at the English character of Leonora, in which the drudgery of practising the virtues appeared to her to be much less amiable than the sentimental talent of dissertating upon them. It appears also that Helen was far from being sufficiently romantic for her taste; and in a word, she pronounces them deficient in real sensibility, possessing no more than a mediocrity of mental energy: and in addition to all this, lady Olivia, cruelly perplexed with the metaphysical theorem, why she cannot love Leonora, has the good fortune to discover that it arises out of the nature of obligation. "Gratitude," says she, "weighs upon the heart in proportion to the delicacy of its feelings. To minds of an ordinary sort it may be pleasurable, for with them it is sufficiently feeble to be calm; but in souls of a superior cast, it is a poignant, painful sensation." This fascinating lady, with her fashionably liberal opinions, converses of love, of marriage, of divorce; and by managements of refined coquetry and brilliant sentiments she fixes first the attention and afterwards the passion of Mr. L. Mrs. C. departs, and leaves Olivia less constrained than when subjected to her observation. The intrigue, for so it must be called, proceeds by gradations, which are drawn with peculiar felicity by our author, who has contrived to give full effect to the virtuous wife suffering with fortitude and undiminished love, and to the deluded husband, whose virtues, sensibility, and even honour, are engaged in the support of his errors. A discovery at last takes place; Olivia leaves the Castle, and Mr. L. follows her. They live for a time in privacy; and Mr. L. accepts an embassy to Russia, with the intention of taking Olivia with him. Olivia had now changed the character of the angelic seducer for that of the turbulent kept mistress. The attachment of Mr. L. to his

amiable wife resumes its power; and reconciliation would have followed, if a solemn promise to Olivia had not bound him to quit the kingdom and take her with him. After an affecting parting with Leonora, which is rendered more interesting by several well-imagined incidents, he proceeds on his embassy, accompanied by general B. Oppressed by anxiety, on the point of quitting England, he is seized with a malignant fever. Leonora flies to him, regardless of danger, and occupied solely by her earnest solicitude for her husband's recovery. Olivia writes letters of sentiment, on the impossibility of her supporting the sight of the object of her affection in a state of suffering, and not forgetting the personal danger her delicate frame would incur from the contagion of his disorder. Mr. L. recovers. The letters of Olivia to France, which, on a difference between her and her friend, were returned, but captured by an English frigate, are sent by a friend in office to Mr. L. He sends them to Leonora, whose principles forbid her to inspect them. She seals them up, to be returned to Olivia. But though Mr. L., actuated by similar principles, returns them unperused, yet he considers himself as absolved from his promise by the discovery that Olivia's happiness is not at all dependent on his love. Here the delusion ends, and the romance concludes with felicity—the lot of virtue.

ART. VII.—*Geographical Delineations: or, A compendious View of the Natural and Political State of all Parts of the Globe. By J. Aikin, M. D. In Two Vols. 8vo. Price* 12*s.* Johnson. 1806.

THIS work consists of portions, or parts, which might be called chapters; one of each being appropriated to every distinct subject: that is to say, the World; Europe; the Political Divisions or Kingdoms of Europe; Asia, and its Political Divisions; Africa, and its Divisions; and lastly, America, together with the Islands in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, including New Holland. The doctor informs us, that his treatise is by no means intended to supersede either the common elementary books on geography, or the more complete systems of that branch of knowledge. On the contrary, the reader is supposed to be acquainted with the first elements; and the extent of the present performance is not sufficiently ample to supply the minute and particular information given in larger works.

His professed object has been to afford . a moderate compass, and under an agreeable form, such a vi of the most important circumstances, relative to the natural d political state of the world, as may strongly and durably impress the mind with just and instructive notions. He has been guided in the prosecution of this design by the two leading circumstances respecting each

country :—what nature has made it, and what man has made it. Of these, the first has taken precedence, as pointing to circumstances which can never fail to exert a certain effect; which survive all temporary changes, and stamp an indelible character. The second, however, as he remarks, is frequently of greater interest, and inculcates lessons of more practical importance: it has, therefore, in the more civilized states, occupied the largest share of the description. Both together have as much as possible been brought to conspire in forming the characteristic strokes of the sketch.

As the first requisite in describing a country is to identify it, the boundaries of each are traced with some minuteness: and it has especially been considered as an object of consequence to show how far the great portions or masses, into which nature seems to have divided the land upon our globe, coincide with the territorial distributions made by human policy. Mountains and rivers, those grand features of country, are likewise laid down with a degree of precision correspondent to their geographical importance. These details may, as the author remarks, seem on first consideration to be dry and tedious; but he corrects this supposition by observing, that the reader must always be supposed to have recourse to a good map; without which words must be very inadequate to communicate this kind of knowledge. This mode of travelling with the eye and understanding conjointly is an agreeable occupation, as well as the only sure method of fixing ideas of locality in the memory.

Thus far we have spoken of this book nearly in the words of its author; and we do not hesitate to give our opinion that it constitutes an useful and elegant addition to the means of acquiring geographical knowledge. To those who, from a want of diligent cultivation at the earlier period of life, find themselves immersed in the affairs of the world, and have greatly to regret that the names of places and the divisions of the globe convey to them no adequate notions, it will be an easy, entertaining, and very useful task to peruse this small work with the map before them. And though it is not intended to mark all the subdivisions of a geographical text-book or nomenclature; yet, if the several sections were appointed as tasks for perusal by young persons, who might afterwards be questioned respecting them by their tutors, we are persuaded that more real knowledge would remain fixed in the memory by such a process, than is commonly acquired by a list of names in the usual manner. We are apt to think that the ingenious author will not, upon second thoughts, adhere to his opinion, that a proper set of maps was not necessary to go along with this treatise. It is true indeed that it is perfectly well calculated to be read, where any modern atlas is at hand: but many indeed are the readers of books like these who have not an atlas. Collections or sets of large maps demand a price beyond the convenience of a multitude of assidu-

ous readers; and the smaller sets with which we are acquainted are, for the most part, too much loaded to answer the intended purpose with the same clearness and perspicuity as distinguish these *Delineations*. We would advise the author to prepare a small atlas somewhat resembling that which accompanies his *England delineated:* or, if this should be considered by the proprietor as a load in point of price upon the present work, it would be a good and useful project for a map-seller to publish a small atlas with duplicates after the manner of *Luffman's Geographical Principles*; and the author of the work before us would promote his own general views by forwarding such an undertaking, or at least by informing his readers where to find a proper collection of maps at a moderate price for their use.

ART. VIII.—*Report of the Committee of the Highland Society of Scotland, appointed to inquire into the Nature and Authenticity of the Poems of Ossian. Drawn up according to the Directions of the Committee, by Henry Mackenzie, Esq. its Convener or Chairman. With a copious Appendix, containing some of the principal Documents on which the Report is founded.* 8vo. 508 *Pages. Price* 12*s.* Constable, Edinburgh; Longman and Co. London. 1805.

THE long-contested question on the authenticity of the poems ascribed to Ossian, and particularly of the celebrated collection of Mr. James Macpherson, having been referred by the Highland Society to a committee of inquiry; the committee shortly after its appointment circulated a number of queries through such parts of the highlands and islands, and among such persons, as were likely to afford any information on the subject.

The object of these queries is to inquire if any of the poems published by Mr. Macpherson had been ever heard in the original, and by whom? also to obtain, if possible, copies from such persons as may remember the original traditionary stories of Fingal and his followers, or of Ossian and his poems, in the Gaelic tongue

This method of research, it seems, was recommended by the celebrated David Hume to his friend Dr. Blair, so long ago as the year 1763: the committee were not aware of this, and on the publication of their queries, the doctor favoured them with such letters and testimonials as he had been able to obtain: they are given in the Appendix to this Inquiry, together with the documents obtained in consequence of the correspondence which the investigation led to.

The committee laboured under great difficulties from the change of manners in the highlands, "where habits of industry have superseded the amusement of listening to the legendary narrative or the heroic ballad, and where,

'Besides this difficulty, which every one at all conversant with the highlands had anticipated, persons in those remote situations, and in that rank of life in which must necessarily be found the greater number of those to whom the committee was to apply for information on this subject, do not easily comprehend the nature of evidence, particularly on matters which themselves have always implicitly believed.' P. 13.

'But the question remaining for the inquiry of the committee was the nature of that genuine poetry which the highlanders used then to repeat and to admire? and how far what, in later times, has been given to the world, corresponds with that genuine ancient poetry? if any, and what additions or alterations have been made? or if a new and more refined poetry, founded on the traditionary materials current over the highlands, has been substituted in the room of the ancient and original compositions? In pursuing this inquiry, and in laying its result before the society, the committee has thought the most satisfactory method would be, to give first an account of the collections made by persons who have successively been engaged in collecting the ancient poetry of the highlands; and 2dly, of what the committee itself had been able to procure of the same species of composition.' P. 18.

The report opens with a review of the labours of those persons who have made collections, and attempted translations into English of the Gaelic songs of the highlands, viz. Jerome Stone, of Dunkeld, who collected several of these ancient poems, and published a translation in rhyme of one of them in The Scots Magazine for January 1756; Mr. Pope, minister of Reay, in Caithness; Mr. James Macpherson, whose translations have attracted so much notice in the literary world, and to discover the authenticity of which is a chief object of the committee. Of the manner in which Mr. Macpherson was induced to collect and publish these poems, the committee have obtained an account from the rev. Dr. Blair, Dr. Adam Fergusson, the rev. Dr. Carlyle, and Mr. Home, the venerable author of Douglas; gentlemen well acquainted with the circumstances, and whose authority will have due weight with the public;—from which it appears that Mr. Macpherson was but an indifferent proficient in the Gaelic language, and that he was indebted to the assistance of the rev. Mr. Gallie, then missionary at Badenoch, and Mr. Macpherson of Strathmashie, in collecting the different copies he had obtained, and rendering the difficult passages into English—a presumption that he could not have forged the original. The rev. Mr. Gallie combats the opinion, or rather prejudice, of Dr. Johnson against the authenticity of Mr. Macpherson's publication by the following observations:

'As I did, at the most early stage of the business, stand convinced that Fingal was no imposition, you may gather from the above that I do so still, notwithstanding what Dr. Johnson, fortified by Dr. M'Queen of Sky, has asserted. The latter appeared to me the most intemperate admirer of Ossian I ever saw, and I both admired and envied what he collected of the works of that bard, and the accuracy and pathos

with which he repeated them, though I am persuaded, at that time of day he did not see the original or translation. I was provoked, perhaps beyond measure, when I saw a friend, for whom I had a high esteem, giving way so servilely to the prejudices of Dr. Johnson. I knew Dr. M'Queen fond of literary fame, and considered by several as rather vain of how he stood in that line, and looked on him, in his commerce with Johnson, as acted on by his leading passion; and, to acquire an eclat, otherwise inaccessible, determined to make that great umpire his friend and panegyrist, and dreading what must happen, did he oppose his, the doctor's, favourite and leading prejudice. This weakness, I believe, begot an inveterate, immoveable prejudice against Mr. Macpherson; and as Mr. Macpherson could not fall without making his country fall with him, the winning, venerable Ossian must be sacrificed. If, as is said, Johnson did not hear the return made to his queries by Dr. M'Queen, and concluded it to be, not what in reality it was, but what he wished, why did not Mr. Boswell, or some of the company present, remove the doctor's mistake? and if such an attempt was not then seasonable or expedient, why did not Mr. Boswell afterwards do justice to Dr. M'Queen? Having, within these few years, read Boswell's Life of Johnson, on cool reflection, I am made to think that Dr. M'Queen made no reply to Dr. Johnson; or, if he did, that it was so couched as to leave Johnson in possession of that prejudice he brought from home, and with which he was determined to return to it.

'I think I can recollect, that gentlemen very high in the literary circle, and most intimate with Johnson, often left the cause of truth and the field of contest to him, knowing the power and virulence of his sarcasms to be such as would irritate beyond measure, and which he seldom restrained when opposed.' P. 34.

In a postscript to the doctor's letter to the committee, written by Mrs. Gallie, the following testimony also appears:

'Not any one thing is more in my remembrance, than seeing with Mr. Macpherson, when he returned from his tour, the Gaelic manuscripts, as described by my husband. I remember Mr. Macpherson most busy at the translation, and he and Mr. Gallie differing as to the meaning of some Gaelic words, and that I was much delighted with the translation,' &c. P. 37,

Some time after the appearance of Mr. Macpherson's Collection, miss Brooke published some Ancient Poetry, collected in Ireland, which has several passages coincident with what are contained in the collection made by Mr. Kennedy on the western coast of Scotland. This similarity is accounted for by the constant communication which formerly subsisted between Scotland and Ireland; so that they were considered almost as one country, and their poetical language nearly or rather altogether the same.

Mr. John Clark, land-surveyor in Badenoch, was the next who published Translations of ancient Gaelic Poetry, about the year 1780.

In the same year Mr. Hill, an English gentleman, made a

tour through the highlands, and procured copies of several ancient poems, not of the highest value, and very much corrupted, which were afterwards published, first in The Gentleman's Magazine, and then in a small pamphlet.

In 1786, a pretty large collection of Gaelic poetry, ancient and modern, was published by Mr. John Gillies, of Perth; but it seems not to have been prepared for the press with sufficient attention.

'Of those who, since the time of Macpherson, have collected or published Gaelic poetry, the most intelligent and successful is the rev. Dr. Smith, minister of Campbelton in Argyleshire, who published, in the year 1780, Dissertations on Gaelic Antiquities, to which were subjoined, a Collection of Ancient Poems, translated from the Gaelic of Ossian, Ullin, Orran, and others; and the doctor afterwards, in 1787, published the originals of the poems he had so translated. Some account of the manner in which he procured these originals, himself, he has annexed to his publication. A more particular one the committee wished to receive from himself; but he frankly told its chairman, that he had been so much disgusted with the reception of his book, as to have long banished the remembrance from his mind; and that he had not even kept a copy for his own use, to which he might refer for an answer to his queries. Dr. Smith's letters to Mr. Mackenzie, however, contain so much good sense, and so much rational remark on the subject of the committee's inquiries, that it is tempted to annex them entire to this report. One passage the committee will quote here, as affording a strong proof of the doctor's fairness and candour. He says, "that on his observing in one of the poems one or two passages which he thought of uncommon beauty, the person who gave it as ancient said *he had composed those passages himself*; that he, Dr. Smith, imputed this at the time to the man's vanity; but that he thought it right to state it to the committee." Whether such person might compose one or two passages in those poems, the committee will not pretend to decide; but when one looks over the list of those from whom the doctor collected his originals, and considers their rank and situation in life, their education and opportunities of improvement, to believe that they could compose such poems would be a degree of credulity much greater than is necessary to believe in the authenticity of Ossian.' P. 59.

The committee next proceeds to give an account of the materials which it had acquired towards elucidating the questions committed to its inquiry.

'To the set of queries before mentioned, circulated through such parts of the highlands as the committee imagined most likely to afford information in reply to them, they received a good many answers, most of which were conceived in nearly similar terms:—that the persons themselves had never doubted of the existence of such poems as Mr. Macpherson had translated: that they had heard many of them repeated in their youth: that listening to them was the favourite amusement of highlanders, in the hours of leisure or of idleness; but that since the rebellion 1745 the manners of the people had undergone a

change so unfavourable to the recitation of these poems, that it was now an amusement scarcely known, and that very few persons remained alive who were able to recite them. That many of the poems they had formerly heard were similar in subject and story, as well as in the names of the heroes mentioned in them, to those translated by Mr. Macpherson: that his translation seemed, to such as had read it, a very able one; but that it did not by any means come up to the force or energy of the original.' P. 77.

'In answer to one of the queries, several of the committee's correspondents mentioned the names of various places in their neighbourhood, tending to shew the universal ancient traditionary belief of the existence of Fingal and his heroes.' P. 79.

The committee applied to the executor of Mr. Macpherson, to know if he had left behind him any of those ancient MSS. which they understood he possessed; but none could be found: that such were once in his possession they have satisfactory evidence, as detailed in the Appendix to their Report.

The rev. Mr. Anderson, minister of Kingusie, and one of Mr. Macpherson's executors, was very attentive to the inquiries of the committee, and sent them various testimonies collected from old highlanders in his neighbourhood, relating to the subject of these inquiries.

'The MSS. which the committee obtained from the other correspondents above alluded to, were various copies or editions (as they may be called) of the poems of Ossian, or poems in imitation of Ossian, now in most common circulation in the highlands. They were chiefly collected in the western highlands and islands, and frequently appeared to be the same poems, but in some of the copies with considerable variations, and what appeared to be corruptions, with those current in Ireland; some of which miss Brooke, the lady herein before mentioned, published, with a metrical translation.' P. 90.

'But the largest and most valuable collection of manuscripts, in the possession of the society, was presented to it, on the application of this committee, by the *High'and Society of London*. One of these belonged to the rev. James M'Gregor, dean of Lismore, the metropolitan church of the see of Argyll, as ascertained by an inscription on the MS. itself. It appears, from dates affixed to it, to have been written at different periods, from 1512 to 1529. It contains more than 11,000 verses of Gaelic poetry, composed at different periods, from the time of our more ancient bards, down to the beginning of the 16th century. Among the more ancient are poems of Conal, son of Edirskeol, Ossian, son of Fingal, Fergus Fili (Fergus the bard), and Caoilt, son of Ronan, the friends and cotemporaries of Ossian.' P. 92.

After various specimens of the poetry contained in the several collections which have come into the hands of the committee, and a comparison of the coincidence to be observed in poems bearing different titles in different collections, (which is considered an argument in favour of their authenticity) —

'The committee cannot avoid remarking, as a circumstance that struck it forcibly, and it is persuaded must strike every impartial inquirer into this subject, that the collections of the ancient (or supposed ancient) poetry of the highlands, by whomsoever made (or supposed to be made), present to the reader pieces of such uncommon poetical merit. Not only Mr. Macpherson, whose talents and early turn for poetry are acknowledged, and Dr. Smith of Campbeltown, whose learning and literary accomplishments are very considerable, but other men, such as *Clark* and *Kennedy*, whose studies and habits of life were remote from the cultivation of poetry, who have either never written on any other occasion, or whose writings give no token of poetical genius or of powers of composition, produce to the world poetry which, in sublimity and tenderness, will, it is believed, be admitted to be at least equal to the compositions of the best modern poets, and but little inferior to the most admired among the ancient. Setting aside all the credit due to persons of unimpeached and respectable characters, may it not be asked, how imposture and forgery should become *muses* to such men, should inspire them with the fervour, the pathos, and the imagery contained in the compositions which they have thus given to the world?' P. 128.

The committee close their labours with a critical examination of the original left by Mr. Macpherson, compared with his translation, whence they deduce that poetry under the denomination of *Ossianic* anciently existed in the highlands of Scotland; that it was common, general, and in great abundance; that it was of a most impressive sort, and in a high degree tender, eloquent, and sublime; and that from the poems and fragments of poems which the committee has been able to procure, containing often the substance, and sometimes almost the literal expression of passages given by Mr. Macpherson in his translations, there is reason to give him credit as having made them from authentic originals. But the committee must acknowledge that they have not been able to obtain any one poem the same in title and tenor with those published by him; and they are inclined to believe that Mr. M. never declined, where he thought it necessary, to supply chasms and to give connection, by inserting passages which he did not find, and to add what he conceived to be dignity and delicacy to the original composition, by striking out passages, by softening incidents, by refining the language; in short, by changing what he considered as too simple or too rude for a modern ear, and elevating what in his opinion was below the standard of good poetry.

'To what degree, however, he exercised these liberties, it is impossible for the committee to determine. The advantages he possessed, which the committee began its inquiries too late to enjoy, of collecting from the oral recitation of a number of persons now no more, a very great number of the same poems, on the same subjects, and then collating those different copies or editions, if they may be so called, rejecting what was spurious or corrupted in one copy, and adopting

from another something more genuine and excellent in its place, afforded him an opportunity of putting together what might fairly enough be called an original whole, of much more beauty, and with much fewer blemishes, than the committee believes it *now* possible for any person, or combination of persons, to obtain.' P. 152.

The Appendix, which constitutes the greater part of the volume, consists of specimens or extracts of such documents as the committee thought might fairly be judged of in a curtailed state. It comprises, 1. Letters to Dr. Blair from several respectable persons, testifying their belief in the authenticity of Mr. Macpherson's publication; 2. Original and Translation of the Testimony or Declaration of Hugh M'Donald, of the island of South Uist, to the same purport; 3. Letter to Mr. Nicholson, Minister of Thurso, from Mr. Pope, Minister of Rea, to a similar effect; 4 and 5. Letters to Henry Mackenzie, Esq. from Drs. Blair, A. Fergusson, Carlyle, and J. Smith, and John Home, Esq.;—6. An Affidavit by Malcolm Macpherson, and a Declaration by Ewan Macpherson, of the Method whereby Mr. James Macpherson obtained the Original of his Poems; the Affidavit is as follows:—

'Malcolm Macpherson, residenter in the parish of Portree, Isle of Sky, and county of Inverness, a married man, aged sixty-six years and upwards, and son of Dougald Macpherson, late tenant in Beenfuter in Troternish, (who was in his time an eminent Highland bard,) being called upon, appeared before us, two of his majesty's justices of the peace for this county, and made the following declaration upon oath:——

'That he had a brother called Alexander, by profession a smith, who died in February one thousand seven hundred and eighty, and who could read and write both English and Gaelic: That he was noted in the country for his knowledge of the poems of Ossian, of which he, the declarant, heard him repeat many: That the declarant was informed by his said brother, and he heard also from others, that when the late Mr. James Macpherson from Badenoch was in this country, collecting the poems of Ossian, he employed himself four days and four nights at Portree, in taking down a variety of them from the recitation of the declarant's said brother.

'That the said declarant farther declares, that his said brother had a Gaelic manuscript in quarto, and about an inch and quarter in thickness; that he procured the said book at Lochcarron, while an apprentice there: that he heard his said brother almost daily repeat the poems contained in the said manuscript, which wholly regarded the Fions or Fingalians: That Mr. James Macdonald, then landlord of Portree, having informed Mr. Macpherson that the declarant's brother had such a manuscript in his possession, Mr. Macpherson requested to see it. Farther declares, That before Mr. Macpherson parted with the declarant's brother, the said Mr. Macpherson observed that, as the declarant's brother could repeat the whole of the poems contained in the manuscript, he would oblige him if he would give him the said manuscript, for which he might expect his friendship and future reward: That his said brother informed the declarant he had

accordingly given the said manuscript to Mr. Macpherson, who carried it with him; since which time, the declarant never heard of it. Farther declares, That he heard his father often reprimand his brother for answering the frequent calls upon him to the house of Portree, to repeat the poems of Ossian to gentlemen who had a taste for that poetry; and that he recollects giving him a very severe reprimand for spending so much time with Mr. Macpherson; that his brother pled, in excuse, that he found Mr. Macpherson so very kind, and being a name-sake, that he could not resist his solicitations.

'Declares, That the late reverend Mr. Donald M'Queen, minister of Kilmuir, was the person who pointed out his brother to Mr. Macpherson. Farther declares, That his, the declarant's, father was bedridden at the time, and did not see Mr. Macpherson at the time; and farther declares that he cannot write.

his
MALCOLM + MACPHERSON.
mark.

(Signed) NORMD. MACDONALD, J. P.
A. MACDONALD, J. P.

DAVID CARMENT, Clk.

'The declarant being asked if he ever heard any person express any doubt of the poems he heard so often repeated by his brother and others being the works of Ossian, depones, That to this hour he never did, and that he had no doubt himself on that head.

(Signed) NORMD. MACDONALD, J. P.
A. MACDONALD, J. P.

Edinburgh, 5th February, 1803.

A True Copy. *Præmissa Attestor.*
AND. BISSET, N. P. App. No. vi. p. 92.

7. Jerome Stone's Original Version of "*Bàs Fhraoich*," with Translations; 8. Specimen of the Poems collected by Mr. Hill, and his Remarks; 9. Observations on ditto; 10. Letters from James Macpherson to Mr. James Maclagan, Minister of Amalrie; 11. Specimens of Mr. Macpherson's Juvenile Poetry; 12. Specimen of the Original of "*Carricthura*;" 13. Capt. A. Morrison's Answers to Queries, and Observations on them; 14. Original Passages of "*Gaul*;" 15. Passages of Ancient Gaelic Poems in the Possession of the Committee, with Notes; 16. Affidavit of A. Fletcher, and Account by Duncan Kennedy; 17. Declaration of Lauchlan Macvuirich; 18. Letter from Lord Bannatyne to H. Mackenzie, Esq.; 19. Account of Ancient MSS. now in the Possession of the Highland Society; 20. Extract of a Poem in Kennedy's Collection, called "*Bàs Oisiain*," representing the Manners of Fingal's Heroes; 21. Comparison of Poems which appear under the same Title in Miss Brooke's and Mr. Kennedy's Collections; 22. "The Death of Carril," a Gaelic Poem, from Kennedy's Collection, with his Argument prefixed.

ART. IX.—*The Poems of Ossian, &c., containing the Poetical Works of James Macpherson, Esq. in Prose and Rhyme, with Notes and Illustrations. By Malcolm Laing, Esq. In Two Vols. 8vo. With a Portrait of Macpherson, engraved by Freeman, from an Original of Sir Joshua Reynolds. Price 1l. 10s. Boards.* Constable and Co. Edinburgh ; Longman, &c. London.

THE editor informs us that the present edition of Macpherson's Poetry has originated from his former Dissertation on the supposed Authenticity of Ossian's Poems. When that dissertation was first published, he continued, occasionally, to collect and note the imitations in Ossian, till the margin of his copy was filled with quotations ; and before the Highland Society had announced an edition of the original, he had determined to publish the originals himself. For that purpose a more critical and minute examination was bestowed upon the poems, in the course of which every simile and every poetical image were traced to their source. He observes, that in Ossian there are some hundred similes and poetical images which must either be original or derived from imitation. If the poems be original, these *must* be original, and can only possess the vague resemblance of casual coincidence ; and if the poems be not authentic, these similes and poetical images must be derived from the classics, the scriptures, and modern poetry with which the author's mind was previously impregnated, and may be distinctly traced to their source :—and again, if these similes and poetical images be original, the authenticity of the poems can admit of no contradiction. But if, on the contrary, they be derived from imitation, all the attestations and oaths in the highlands would fail to establish the authenticity of Ossian. The present commentator professes, therefore, not merely to exhibit parallel passages, and much less instances of a fortuitous resemblance of ideas, but to produce the precise originals from which the similes and images are indisputably derived.

These are the primary reasonings of the commentator; and as the facts he means to adduce must possess the strong characters last mentioned, it is almost unnecessary for us to point out that his logic, with regard to some of these positions, does not appear quite correct. It is doubtless true, that the similes and images of these ancient poems, if authentic, must be original ; but it is not equally clear that Mr. Macpherson was under the necessity of *deriving* his allusions and images, because he might have *invented* them : and this last supposition would take away much of the force of the third remark, because the originality of the similes and poetical images may as well, though not with equal probability, be referred to Macpherson as to the pretended ancient writers.

To return to our subject :—The arrangement of the three first editions is preserved in the present publication, because the order

in which the poems appeared is of some importance in the discussions. The text of the corrected edition of 1773 is adopted throughout, and the additions are carefully marked and distinguished by Italics, though the alterations are too numerous and minute to be noticed. The editor has rejected Macpherson's Historical Dissertations and many of his Notes, as full of falsehood; and Blair's Critical Dissertation is also omitted, because, as the editor remarks, his memory would derive no honour from that production.

The arguments of this writer are sufficiently important to be given in this place.

'In the course of my inquiries, I have discovered above four thousand of Macpherson's verses, written between the age of seventeen and twenty-two, while he *sacrificed*, or *served his apprenticeship in secret to the muses*. His earliest poem is in blank verse, and entitled Death; the second is a heroic poem, which may be styled The Hunter; both written at the age of eighteen, and discovered in the Highlands in his own hand-writing. The Highlander, his next heroic poem, was published in 1758. Other verses, marked with his initials, were occasionally inserted in the Scots and Edinburgh Magazines; and in a Collection of Original Poetry, by Blacklock and other Scots gentlemen, (Edinburgh 1760,) a series of anonymous poems must be appropriated to Macpherson. These poems, of which some are highly descriptive, and others again sentimental, are authenticated by the repetition of the same expressions and imagery in Ossian; but at present, the chief value of Macpherson's verses consist in the evidence which they afford, that his first and most predominating ambition was to become a heroic poet.

'From this early bias, the fabrication of the poems, ascribed to Ossian, may be distinctly explained. In the correspondence just published by the Highland Society, Dr. Adam Fergusson tells us *, that he had informed his friend, Mr. John Home, of certain ancient poems preserved in the Highlands; one of which, containing the arrival or landing of a host, and a subsequent battle, with a single combat of two chiefs, he himself had committed to writing, about the year 1740, from the recitation of a journeyman tailor at his father's house. Though not in possession of the copy when Fingal was published, he had no doubt or difficulty in recognizing the same passage in the arrival of Swaran, and the single combat with Cuthullin; as a proof of which, he quotes two passages from memory; the first relating to the hosts engaged, when correctly printed, thus,

Jommaid colan, iommaid triath
Jommaid sciath is luireach gharibh.

"Many a coat of mail (was there), many a hero, many a shield, many a great breast-plate."

* Report of the Committee of the Highland Society, on the Authenticity of Ossian; Appendix, p. 68. In writing this preface I had not seen the Report itself, but I rested with Mr. Mackenzie upon the evidence contained in the Appendix, which had been communicated to me in MS. some years ago, and which I pronounced at first sight a sufficient detection of the whole imposture. See Dissertation on the supposed Authenticity of Ossian's Poems,—*Hist. Scot.* iv. 468-93, 2d edit.

And the second to the chiefs who grappled, and in whose struggle,

Bha clochan agus talamh trom
Amosgladh faoi bhon an coss.

"There were stones and heavy earth opening beneath the soles of their feet*."

'The venerable Dr. Fergusson, however, will be surprised to learn that these passages are not to be found in Fingal, nor indeed in Macpherson's Ossian; but that the identical words are contained in the Irish ballad of *Ossian agus an Clerich*, or The Combat of Fingal and Magnus; the only poem concerning an invasion, a battle, and a combat between two chiefs, which the doctor took down from a tailor's recitation.

'And now "the moon takes up the wondrous tale." In autumn 1759, Dr. Carlyle †, and Mr. John Home, met Macpherson, with his pupil, at Moffat. Mr. Home, in consequence of his previous information from Dr. Ferguson, enquired concerning the remains of Earse poetry, and was told by Macpherson, that several pieces of ancient poetry were then in his possession. When the former desired to see them, the latter asked, (as usual) if he understood the Gaelic. "Not one word." "How then can I shew them to you?" "Very easily," said Mr. Home; "*translate* one of the poems which you think a *good one*; and I imagine, that I shall be able to form some opinion of the genius and character of the Gaelic poetry." Such an application from a dramatic poet, so distinguished then as the author of Douglas, must have been secretly acceptable and gratifying to an obsure tutor like Macpherson, whose Highlander had sunk unnoticed from the press, and whose name was still unknown among men of letters. After a coy resistance, he was persuaded to comply; and in a day or two, he produced the Fragment on the death of Oscar‡, which of all others is the most demonstratively a forgery, and which Macpherson himself was obliged to appropriate afterwards to another Oscar, the son of Caruth§. When the very first poem, produced by Macpherson, is an almost avowed fabrication, it is evident, that on finding the genuine Earse ballads unfit for translation, he could not resist the temptation to vindicate that neglected merit of which he was conscious, by submitting his own poetry, which the public had hitherto overlooked, to a distinguished judge as a relique of antiquity. In a few days he produced two or three other fragments, with which Mr. Home returned in triumph to Edinburgh.

The *literati* of Edinburgh, to whom the fragments were communicated, considered only their poetical merit. A treasure hid for ages was received with avidity. Copies were transmitted to Gray and Shenstone; and as no enquiry was made concerning the originals, it appears that the antiquity of the fragments was implicitly admitted, because they teemed with the sentimental cant which was then in vogue. Dr. Blair, in particular, "struck with the high spirit of poetry

* I find the same passage from the ballad of Magnus, recited from memory, as a fragment of Ossian, by Mr. Gallie, another witness upwards of fourscore. *Mr. Mackenzie's Report*, p. 39.

† Appendix to Mr. Mackenzie's Report, p. 66.

‡ Id. p. 69.

§ See vol. ii. of this edition, p. 46, note.—p. 393, note.

that breathed in them," was industrious to procure other fragments from Macpherson, who affected to translate with reluctance, pretending that "no versions of his could do justice to the spirit and force of the original *;" but his secret objection was very differently explained to a confidential friend: namely, "That his Highland pride was alarmed at appearing *only as a translator* to the world †." Startled, perhaps, at the magnitude and danger of the imposture, he endeavoured, at this period, to get released from his engagements to Blair, who, after much and repeated importunity, procured translations of the remaining fragments, "by representing the injustice that would be done to his native country, in keeping concealed those hidden treasures, which, if brought forth, would serve to enrich the whole learned world ‡." Accordingly, the Fragments were published in June 1760, with a preface, which Blair penned from the information supplied by Macpherson, and in which he begins with assuring the public, that "they may depend on the following fragments, as genuine remains of ancient Scottish poetry;" without once reflecting that the pretended translator was himself a poet.

'Macpherson, a heroic poet from the very beginning, had artfully represented to Blair, what was now fully announced in the preface, that if suitable encouragement were given, an epic poem of considerable length might be recovered in the Highlands. Specimens of the poem were inserted in the Fragments; and at a literary dinner, a subscription for the recovery of this lost epic § was proposed with such spirit, that Macpherson's hesitation and doubts of success were at once surmounted ‖. A considerable subscription was raised among the advocates and men of letters; and Macpherson was dispatched that same summer, on a poetical mission to the Highlands and Isles. When he returned in winter, laden with the hidden treasures of Celtic literature, he spent his time, as he said, in translation; and the Irish manuscripts which he certainly collected, and which are probably still extant, appeared to those who were unable to read them, to be satisfactory because they were old, and much sullied with smoke and snuff **. In the course of a twelvemonth, an epic poem was prepared for the press, and by the

* Appendix to Mr. Mackenzie's Report, p. 57.

† "I well know, that his (Macpherson's) first attempts were encouraged by Dr. Blair; and I have in my custody several letters from Macpherson, soliciting me to be *released from his promise* of collecting and transmitting to the learned doctor the few Fragments first published; and one great argument he used against the printing them was, *That his Highland pride was alarmed at appearing to the world only as a translator.*" Letter from the late Mr. George Laurie, minister of Loudon, January 18, 1782.

‡ Mr. Mackenzie's Report. Appendix, p. 56.

§ Blair writes thus to Lord Hailes; "I intended to have waited on you this day, (but was hindered by some accident) that we might have had some conversation about any scheme that can be fallen upon, for encouraging Mr. Macpherson to apply himself to the making a further collection of Earse poetry, and particularly for recovering *our epic*. As the specimens are so highly relished, don't you think, that a pretty considerable collection might be made for bearing his expences?" &c. June 23d. (1760).

‖ Mr. Mackenzie's Report. Appendix, 58.

** Report 80. Appendix, 59. 65. Blair informs us, "that some gentlemen, particularly Professor Adam Fergusson, told me that they did look into Macpherson's papers, and saw some which appeared to them to be old manuscripts; and that in comparing his version with the original, they found it exact and faithful in many parts

advice of his friends he removed to London, where, under the patronage of lord Bute, Fingal and the lesser poems were published by subscription, about the beginning of the year 1762. The Temora and the remaining poems were published early in the following year, with inferior success; and in a critical dissertation by Blair on the poems of Ossian, the palm of heroic poesy was indirectly transferred from the Greek to the Celtic bard.

'Such, then, was the origin, and such the progress of those celebrated poems, in which the very first step was an imposition practised upon the easy credulity of Home and Blair. To them the supposed beauties of the Fragments were the sole proofs of antiquity; without even any previous inquiry whether those beauties were really original, or from what sources of imitation they were derived. From the first forgery of the Death of Oscar, Macpherson was conducted, step by step, to other fabrications, by their importunity and zeal; and encouraged by the unexampled success of the Fragments, especially when compared with the miscarriage of the Highlander, he availed himself dexterously of the enthusiasm of his countrymen to possess a national epopee, and gave them his own compositions under another name, as the genuine productions of a remote antiquity. His different prefaces contain a plain explanation of the fact; and a careful reservation of his latent claims to the rank and merit of an original poet. "But indeed he did not affect to conceal from those with whom he was particularly intimate, that the poems were entirely his own composition; as sir John Elliot, then an eminent physician in London, informed Dr. Percy," the venerable bishop of Dromore, whose words I have transcribed, and whose attestation of the fact will be read with pleasure.

'"The bishop of Dromore has allowed Dr. Anderson to declare, that he repeatedly received the most positive assurances from sir John Elliot, the confidential friend of Macpherson, that all the poems published by him, as translations of Ossian, were entirely of his own composition*."

'I understand that Macpherson made similar declarations to other friends; as will appear from the following declaration in particular, by the rev. Mr. Lapslie, minister of Campsie in Scotland.

'"Living at Antwerp in the year 1778, along with the present sir James Suttie, bart. of Balgonie, I had an opportunity of being often in the house of general Plunket, governor of the citadel of Antwerp, an Irish gentleman in the Imperial service. The conversation between him and me sometimes turning upon the poems of Ossian, general Plunket said, that Mr. Macpherson had declared to an old and intimate companion of his and the general's, that having given an exceeding good poem to the public, which passed unnoticed, he then published as ancient some fragments of his own, which were so much applauded that henceforth he resolved to give the world enough of such ancient poetry."

---

which they read:" Whereas doctor Ferguson merely says, that "the fragments I afterwards saw in Mr. Macpherson's hands, by no means appeared of recent writing; the paper was much stained with smoke and daubed with Scotch snuff;" the only proof which he gives of the authenticity of Ossian.

* Letter from the Bishop of Dromore to Dr. Robert Anderson of Edinburgh, dated Dromore-house, April 16, 1805.

Campsie, May 18, 1805.

"Dear sir, Such was general Plunket's declaration to me. From my total ignorance of the Earse language, I was unable to enter into the controversy with his excellency; nor am I able at this moment to give my opinion upon the subject, so far as my knowledge of that language, or acquaintance with the manners and customs of the Scotch Highlanders, would entitle me to be heard; and I even consider it as delicate in me to speak about what a gentleman said, who is long since dead, as the friends of Ossian have it not in their power to examine into the truth of what I state. I solemnly assure you, however, that I state nothing but what general Plunket declared to me again and again.

"I dare not, at this distance of time, say, that I accurately remember the name of that old and intimate companion of general Plunket's, to whom Macpherson made the declaration. But I believe he was some connection of lord Petre. I am, &c.

To M. Laing, Esq. JAMES LAPSLIE."

'General Plunket died at Liege, the Christmas thereafter, on his way to Vienna. His information was obtained, in all probability, from the late Dr. Alexander Geddes, who had been at Antwerp that year, and who always professed his disbelief of the authenticity of Ossian. But it is observable, that the general knew no more of the Highlander, to which Macpherson alluded, than Mr. Lapslie in 1799 did, when he communicated the anecdote accidentally to Mr. Wharton, M. P. from whom I received it while writing my dissertation.

'The remaining evidence for the authenticity of the poems may require a short examination. In consequence of David Hume's letters, Blair wrote to the Highlands to procure attestations; and an incoherent mass of evidence was added to his Dissertation, in an Appendix which Macpherson afterwards suppressed. It is necessary to premise, that about twenty or thirty Irish ballads relative to the Fions, and ascribed to Ossian, are preserved in the Highlands by tradition or writing; but these are short unconnected songs, and are nothing superior, in point of poetical merit, to the popular English ballads concerning king Arthur and Robin Hood. Their origin is certain, as the same poems are preserved more entire in Ireland, to which the names and subjects are all confined, and as they are composed according to the rules of alliteration in Irish prosody, which are seldom or never observed in any Earse poems. Their date must be ascribed to the fourteenth and fifteenth century, not only from internal evidence, but because Irish poetry is not once mentioned in the twelfth century by Giraldus Cambrensis, in his long panegyric upon Irish music, while the songs and tales concerning the Fions are first noticed by Good, a schoolmaster at Limerick, about the year 1566, and by Carswell, bishop of the Isles, in the preface to an Earse prayer-book printed at Edinburgh in 1567 *. In

* Defunctorum animas in consortium abire existimant quorundam in illis locis illustrium, de quibus fabulas et cantilenas retinent, ut gigantum, Fin Mac Huyle, Osker Mac Oshin, et tales sæpe per illusionem se videre dicunt. Camden's Hibernia, from J. Good, who had been educated at Oxford, and was afterwards a schoolmaster and priest at Limerick. "They are more desirous and accustomed to compose vain tempting lying histories concerning Tuath de Danaans, and Milesians,

consequence of frequent migrations from Ireland, not only the songs of the Fions, but the tales of the Milesians and Tuath de Danaan, had been then at least introduced into Argyle and the western Highlands, to which the former seem to be still confined.

'The names of the heroes, a few occasional incidents and detached passages of the Irish ballads, had been seized by Macpherson, and incorporated into his poems. The Highlanders, therefore, in their answers to Blair, declared to a man, that they had heard and remembered the poems of Ossian from their earliest youth; and it is impossible, even at present, to make them comprehend, that the identity of the poems is the only question in dispute, and that the Irish ballads, which they remember to have heard, are in fact the strongest confutation of Macpherson's Ossian. We have seen the memory play such fantastic tricks upon the venerable doctor Ferguson, that, recollecting a story of an invading host, a battle, and the combat of two chiefs, in the ballad of Magnus, he had no difficulty in recognising the same passages again in Fingal. Such are the attestations of all the Highlanders, to whom the names and occasional incidents, an invasion, a battle, and a single combat, are familiar; and the few facts contained in their evidence, which relate exclusively to the Irish ballads, are appropriated without scruple to Macpherson's Ossian.' Pref. p. viii.

We would willingly give a further extract of the particular circumstances related and animadverted upon by Mr. Laing, but for want of room we shall only subjoin the forcible address with which he concludes:

'In a liberal, and to men of letters an interesting, controversy, which I have happily divested of its former acrimony, it is painful to animadvert upon those disingenuous arts to which anonymous writers are so apt to resort. But when the parole evidence amounts to nothing, the question recurs with additional force; Where are those manuscripts which Macpherson certaintly collected in the Highlands, and with which his Earse and English versions of Ossian might still be compared? They have certainly neither been lost by accident, nor destroyed by design; and if Macpherson of Strathmashie, whose nephew is still alive, had preserved any copies, as he has solemnly asserted, let them be produced and compared with the manuscripts from which they were transcribed; if the Address to the Sun was taken by Morison, not from Macpherson's Earse version of Carthon, but from original papers, let those originals at least be produced. The *Gaelic* manuscripts collected by Macpherson are apparently those which were lodged in 1782 with Mr. John Mackenzie, "for the purpose of removing," not the objections to the authenticity of Ossian, but "the doubts raised by Johnson, whether any ancient manuscripts in that language really existed *." They have been repeatedly examined by Shaw, Astle, Dr. Donald Smith, by myself, and others; but no part of Macpherson's Ossian has hitherto

concerning champions and Fin Mac Cumhail, and Fingalians, &c." Pref. to Carswell's Prayer-Book. Campbell's Tour through Scotland.

* See Dissertation on the supposed Authenticity of Ossian's Poems. *Hist. Scot.* iv. 426, note, 2d edition. One of them was probably the MS. which Macpherson left as the original of Ossian at Becket's shop, but which was afterwards said by some to have been an old Irish genealogical MS.—Letter from the Bishop of Dromore to Dr. Anderson.

been discovered. I have repeatedly offered to renounce my objections, to abandon the whole controversy, and, what no disputant ever offered before, to become a sincere convert to the opposite faith, if a single poem of Macpherson's Ossian,—for instance, Carthon, or even The Address to the Sun in Carthon, or a single Address to Malvina, could be pointed out in an Earse manuscript above a century old: but it is sufficient to observe in conclusion, that after an interval of five years no such manuscript has yet been produced.' Pref. p. xlii.

EDINBURGH, *June* 7, 1805.

Some anecdotes of Macpherson are given, which terminate with an observation, that his morals were not such as to refute the charge made against him; "that with a genius truly poetical, he was one of the first literary impostors of modern times."

The collection consists of Fingal in six books; Comala; The War of Caros; The War of Inis-Thona; The Battle of Lora; Conlath and Cuthona; Carthon; The Death of Cuthullin; Dar-thula; Carric-thura; The Songs of Selma; Calthon and Conmal; Lathmon; Oithona; Croma; Berrathon; Temora, in seven books; Cathlin of Clutha; Sulmalla of Lumon; Cath-Loda in three duan; Oina-Moral; Colna-Dona; Specimens of the Original of Temora, Book 7.; Malvina's Dream; Fragments of Ancient Poetry; The Six Bards, a fragment; Death, a poem; The Hunter, in ten cantos; The Highlander, in six cantos. After these succeed the following miscellaneous poems—On the Death of Marshal Keith; On the Death of a young Lady; To the Memory of an Officer killed before Quebec; The Earl Marischal's Welcome to his Native Country; Horace, Ode xvi. Book 2. imitated; Ode x. Book 2. imitated; The Choice, written on a Birth-Day; The Monument; Verses sent to a Young Lady with some Translations from the Earse; The Cave; Fragments from Tyrtæus; Anacreon, Odes iv. and vii. translated; In answer to a Letter from Delia; A Night-Piece; Verses to a young Lady; Fragments of a Northern Tale; The same versified.

ART. X.—*A Northern Summer: or Travels round the Baltic, through Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and Part of Germany, in the Year* 1804. *By John Carr, Esq. Author of The Stranger in France, &c.* 4*to.* 492 *Pages. Price* 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* Phillips, London. 1805.

OF travellers, the classes are almost indefinitely numerous. It is not enough that a man should visit places entitled to description, or nations whose laws, manners, and customs deserve to be investigated; it is also requisite, that he should previously have acquired a stock of knowledge which shall enable him to describe, to compare, and to digest the materials that come before him. If it be demanded whether Mr. Carr has viewed the countries

and nations, through which he has passed, with any particular attention to those circumstances concerning which information would be most acceptable, we cannot say that he has shown any remarkable store of this previous acquirement. Neither the past history, the present policy or the diplomatic relations; the arts or manufactures; the laws, customs, and manners; the architecture, paintings, and other works of taste; the geology, mineralogy, or agriculture; those striking scenes which fill the eye of the painter; nor the events which rouse the feelings of the poet, and produce glowing descriptions of interesting events:—none of these subjects constitute the prominent features of Mr. Carr's Travels. They are the adventures of a man of sense, who has suffered inconveniences and enjoyed pleasures which the general mass of travellers, passing over the same ground, will suffer and enjoy very nearly in the same manner: and if they should relate what they see and what may befall them, their books of travels will not very greatly differ from that of the present author. We may perhaps make an exception, with regard to the singular, joking, and enigmatical manner in which his heads of chapters and of pages, and some of the body of his work is drawn up, partly for the diversion and partly to excite the curiosity of the reader. We do not, however, mean to assert that these travels, though they do not abound with instruction, are not sufficiently amusing to afford entertainment. The author seems indeed to have considered his book in no other light; and accordingly it contains a multitude of such unimportant incidents and remarks, as constitute the species of communication known by the name of small-talk or chat. We must at the same time allow, that his small-talk is in general of a superior description, and that many of the articles in the work are justly entitled to a much higher denomination. His tour was made across Denmark, through Sweden, thence to Russia, and he returned through Prussia and part of Germany. His book will be read with interest by those who may follow the same course, and he has been very properly attentive to every thing which relates to the moneys of the different states, and the necessary formalities at passing the respective frontiers. An outline map would have been an acceptable and not expensive addition: and we were rather disappointed at the want of a sufficient number of dates. Of the fidelity of his narration we entertain no doubt, and have the pleasure to say that the style is clear, elegant, and in general easy. Eleven views in aqua-tinta, not in the very first style of execution, adorn this work.

As we do not conceive it to be necessary to follow this writer through the regular course of his tour, we shall give an extract as a specimen of the author's manner; who certainly succeeds best in those points of history which he has undertaken to relate. The account he gives of the events which terminated in the assassination of the late emperor Paul is as follows:

'A gentleman nearly connected with me, now no more, a man of talent and acute observation and veracity, had several years since the honour of spending a short period at the little secluded court of Gatchina, upon which as the dazzling beams of imperial favour never shone, the observer was left in the tranquillity of the shade, to make a more calm, steady, and undiverted survey. At this time, Paul displayed a mind very elegantly inclined, and, without being brilliant, highly cultivated, accomplished and informed, frank and generous, brave and magnanimous, a heart tender and affectionate, and a disposition very sweet, though most acutely and poignantly susceptible: his person was not handsome, but his eye was penetrating, and his manners such as denoted the finished gentleman. In his youth he was seen by the bed-side of the dying Panin, the hoary and able minister of Catherine, and his tutor, kissing and bathing his hand with tears. As an evidence of his intellectual vigour, let the elaborate and able ukase, by which he settled the precedence and provision of the imperial family, unquestionably his own unassisted composition, be referred to. He loved his amiable princess, and his children, with the most ardent, the most indulgent fondness; and it was the labour of their love, as well as of his servants, who were devotedly attached to him, to requite his affections and graciousness, and to endeavour to fill up with every endearing, every studied attention, the gloomy chasm which had been formed by an unnatural and inexplicable neglect; but this chasm was a bottomless abyss, upon the brink of which his wounded spirit was ever wandering! Paul possessed a high martial inclination, and, reflecting that he might one day mount the throne of a military empire, he made the art of war the principal object of his studies: but neither this pursuit, so copious, so interesting, nor the endearments of those who surrounded him, could expel from his mind the sense of his injuries. He beheld himself, the second personage and the destined ruler of the empire, postponed to the periodical favourite of his mother, the minister of her unbounded voluptuousness, not unfrequently elevated to the presidency of the Hermitage from the ranks, with no other pretensions than vigorous health and a mighty frame; whilst, on the other hand, the bleeding shade of his father was for ever, in his morbid imagination, pointing to his wound, and whispering revenge. Thus exiled from the heart of his mother, is it a matter of surprise that he should exclude her from his own?'

'A short time before her demise, Catherine committed to P—— Z——, her last favourite, whom she highly esteemed, a declaration of her will, addressed to the senate, purporting that Paul should be passed over in the succession, and that the grand duke Alexander should mount the vacant throne. As soon as the favourite was acquainted with the sudden death of the empress, he flew to Pavlovsk, about thirty-five versts from the capital, where Paul occasionally resided, whom he met on the road; and, after a short explanation, delivered up to him this important document. Paul, charmed with his zeal and loyalty, preserved him in all his honours and fortunes, whilst a general and rapid dispersion, to all points of the compass, instantaneously succeeded amongst the members of the *male seraglio* of the Hermitage. The emperor ascended the throne without difficulty,

but a total stranger to his subjects. One of the first measures of his reign displayed, in a very singular manner, the native goodness of his heart, under the clouds that rapidly began to overshadow it, in an act of piety towards his murdered father, whose remains he removed from the church of St. Alexander Nevski, called the Monastery; and having exhibited them in great funeral state, he consigned them to the sepulchre of Catherine II., in the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul. The latter part of this extraordinary transaction has often induced me to think that Paul did not believe that his mother issued the order for the assassination of his father. At this eccentric solemnity, he compelled count Alexey Orloff, and prince Baratynski, under whose hands the unhappy monarch is said to have perished, to stand on each side of the body as it lay in state, and afterwards to follow it to the tomb as the principal mourners.

'Not long after this event, his mind began occasionally to display the most fearful symptoms of distraction; but when his reason was restored, the hapless emperor never failed to endeavour, with the most affecting sensibility, to repair the ruin and havoc which his delirium had occasioned. The deposed Stanislaus, the broken-hearted king of Poland, partook alternately of his beneficence and severity; but with what demonstration of respect and genuine grief did the emperor attend the obsequies of this last of the Sarmates? On that gloomy occasion, he commanded in person the guards who assisted at the funeral; and, uncovering himself, with the most affecting emotions saluted the coffin as it passed. To the memory of the hoary and heroic Suvaroff, who fell a broken-hearted victim to the distraction of his imperial master, in periods of agonized and compunctious reflection, he raised a colossal statue of bronze, in the vast area behind Benskoi's palace, opposite to Romantzoff's monument; and, on the days when he reviewed his troops there, he used to order them to march by in open order, and face the statue, which he said represented one of the greatest and bravest generals of his own or any other age.' P. 303.

The author then proceeds to relate the banishment of P—— Z——; the French intrigue by which the emperor became enamoured of madame Chevalier, an actress; the ruinous consequences that followed, and the recall of Z——; and the narrative is continued:

'Whatever private pique Z—— might have cherished against his imperial master, I believe that it was wholly lost in his review of the deteriorated and dreadful condition of the empire, and in those awful measures of restoration which were afterwards resorted to. Z—— gradually and warily unfolded his mind to K——, who as cautiously entered into his views, until their confidence was completely established. The result of their deliberations was, that, to save the empire, it was necessary that the emperor should be removed. They next prevailed upon count P——, the governor of the city, and count P——, a very young nobleman, but of considerable family interest, the son of the celebrated general count P—— P——, who so eminently distinguished himself in the Turkish war, and also the prince Y——, and some other persons of great rank and consequence. All these noblemen were actuated by no other motive, than to prevent the final ruin of

their country, and for this purpose they determined to place in peril their lives and their fortunes.

'In their conferences, which were managed with admirable discretion, it was resolved that Paul should die; and, like Cæsar, it was destined that he should perish in the ides of March, on the day of the festival called Maslaintza.

'I think I hear the voice of humanity exclaim, "Why not provisionally remove the unhappy monarch from the throne?" Alas! the constitution of Russia possesses none of those mild and beneficent provisions, which endear our own constitution to us a thousand and a thousand times. When the ruler is once mounted on the throne, an abyss opens below, and the descent from the last step is into eternity. I am endeavouring to illustrate motives,-not justify them; the record is before another tribunal! It is scarcely necessary for me to observe, that the august family of Paul were wholly unacquainted with the meditated blow.'

'The emperor and his family resided, at the time when the confederacy had resolved upon his removal, in the new palace of Saint Michael. It is an enormous quadrangular pile, of red Dutch brick, rising from a massy basement of hewn granite; it stands at the bottom of the Summer Gardens, and the lofty spire of its Greek chapel, richly covered with ducat gold, rising above the trees, has a beautiful appearance.

'As Paul was anxious to inhabit this palace as soon after he was crowned as possible, the masons, the carpenters, and various artificers, toiled with incredible labour by day and by torch-light, under the sultry sun of the summer, and in all the severity of a polar winter, and in three years this enormous and magnificent fabric was completed. The whole is moated round; and when the stranger surveys its bastions of granite, and numerous draw-bridges, he is naturally led to conclude, that it was intended for the last asylum of a prince at war with his subjects. Those who have seen its massy walls, and the capaciousness and variety of its chambers, will easily admit that an act of violence might be committed in one room, and not be heard by those who occupy the adjoining one; and that a massacre might be perpetrated at one end, and not known at the other. Paul took possession of this palace as a place of strength, and beheld it with rapture, because his imperial mother had never even seen it. Whilst his family were here, by every act of tenderness endeavouring to soothe the terrible perturbation of his mind, there were not wanting those who exerted every stratagem to inflame and increase it. These people were constantly insinuating, that every hand was armed against him. With this impression, which added fuel to his burning brain, he ordered a secret stair-case to be constructed, which, leading from his own chamber, passed under a false stove in the anti-room, and led by a small door to the terrace.

'It was the custom of the emperor to sleep in an outer apartment next to the empress's, upon a sopha, in his regimentals and boots, whilst the grand duke and duchess, and the rest of the imperial family, were lodged at various distances, in apartments below the story which he occupied. On the tenth day of March, O. S. 1801, the day preceding the fatal night,—whether Paul's apprehension, or anonymous information, suggested the idea, is not known,—but con-

ceiving that a storm was ready to burst upon him, he sent to count P——, the governor of the city, one of the noblemen who had resolved on his destruction: "I am informed, P——," said the emperor, "that there is a conspiracy on foot against me; do you think it neces-"sary to take any precaution?" The count, without betraying the least emotion, replied, "Sire, do not suffer such apprehensions to haunt "your mind; if there were any combinations forming against your "majesty's person, I am sure I should be acquainted with it." "Then I am satisfied," said the emperor, and the governor withdrew. Before Paul retired to rest, he unexpectedly expressed the most tender solicitude for the empress and his children, kissed them with all the warmth of farewell fondness, and remained with them longer than usual; and after he had visited the sentinels at their different posts, he retired to his chamber, where he had not long remained, before, under some colourable pretext, that satisfied the men, the guard was changed by the officers who had the command for the night, and were engaged in the confederacy. An hussar, whom the emperor had particularly honoured by his notice and attention, always at night slept at his bed-room door, in the anti-room. It was impossible to remove this faithful soldier by any fair means. At this momentous period, silence reigned throughout the palace, except where it was disturbed by the pacing of the sentinels, or at a distance by the murmurs of the Neva, and only a few lights were to be seen distantly aud irregularly gleaming through the windows of this dark colossal abode. In the dead of the night, Z—— and his friends, amounting to eight or nine persons, passed the draw-bridge, easily ascended the stair-case which led to Paul's chamber, and met with no resistance till they reached the anti-room, when the faithful hussar, awakened by the noise, challenged them, and presented his fusee: much as they must have all admired the brave fidelity of the guard, neither time nor circumstances would admit of an act of generosity, which might have endangered the whole plan. Z—— drew his sabre and cut the poor fellow down. Paul, awakened by the noise, sprung from his sopha: at this moment the whole party rushed into his room; the unhappy sovereign, anticipating their design, at first endeavoured to entrench himself in the chairs and tables; then recovering, he assumed a high tone, told them they were his prisoners, and called upon them to surrender. Finding that they fixed their eyes steadily and fiercely upon him, and continued advancing towards him, he implored them to spare his life, declared his consent instantly to relinquish the sceptre, and to accept of any terms which they would dictate. In his raving, he offered to make them princes, and to give them estates, and titles, and orders, without end. They now began to press upon him, when he made a convulsive effort to reach the window: in the attempt he failed; and indeed so high was it from the ground, that had he succeeded, the expedient would only have put a more instantaneous period to his misery. In the effort he very severely cut his hand with the glass; and as they drew him back he grasped a chair, with which he felled one of the assailants, and a desperate resistance took place. So great was the noise, that notwithstanding the massy walls, and thick double folding-doors, which divided the apartments, the empress was disturbed, and began to cry for help; when a voice whispered in her ear, and imperatively told her to re-

main quiet, otherwise, if she uttered another word, she should be put to instant death. Whilst the emperor was thus making a last struggle, the prince Y—— struck him on one of his temples with his fist, and laid him upon the floor; Paul, recovering from the blow, again implored his life: at this moment the heart of P—— Z—— relented; and upon being observed to tremble and hesitate, a young Hanoverian resolutely exclaimed, "We have passed the Rubicon: if we spare his life, before the setting of tomorrow's sun we shall be his victims!" upon which he took off his sash, turned it twice round the naked neck of the emperor, and giving one end to Z——, and holding the other himself, they pulled for a considerable time with all their force, until their miserable sovereign was no more; they then retired from the palace without the least molestation, and returned to their respective homes. What occurred after their departure can be better conceived than depicted: medical aid was resorted to, but in vain, and upon the breathless body of the emperor fell the tears of his widowed empress and children, and domestics; nor was genuine grief ever more forcibly or feelingly displayed than by him on whose brow this melancholy event had planted the crown. So passed away this night of horror, and thus perished a prince to whom nature was *severely* bountiful. The acuteness and pungency of his feeling was incompatible with happiness: unnatural prejudice pressed upon the fibre, too finely spun, and snapped it.' P. 311.

ART. XI.—*Observations on the Utility and Administration of Purgative Medicines in several Diseases. By James Hamilton, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh.* 320 *Pages* 8vo.

THE publication before us bears a different character from the medical writings which the public have been accustomed to receive from that celebrated school whence the present work also emanated. Theories deriving their origin from the University of Edinburgh have, during the last forty years, agitated the minds of students of medicine, and influenced the writings of authors on this department of natural knowledge in every part of Europe. That generalization of facts denominated theory may be requisite to embody a science which is to be taught as a consistent whole to a student. A small share of bed-side experience will soon however convince the scholar that medicine, like every other part of human knowledge, is founded on experience, and admits of improvement only from the accumulation of facts, and the comparison of candid and faithful observations.

The information contained in the present volume is strictly of the practical kind, and possesses peculiar claims to authenticity. Many of them are founded on the practice of the author in his capacity of physician to the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh. In that institution the cases of the patients are investigated in the presence of a number of attentive and discriminating pupils; the

remedies prescribed are daily noted in a book, together with their effects, as well as the result of the general treatment. This constitutes a permanent and public register of facts, which neither admits of being falsified nor altered at any future period, in order to accommodate remote to more recent experience. The examples of the practice here recommended, given from the records of the doctor's private practice, as well as those derived from the contributions of his friends, bear also every mark of candour and veracity.

In the preliminary observations concerning purgative medicines in general, somewhat more accuracy of discrimination would have been desirable. The doctor seems to think that every medicine capable of evacuating the contents of the bowels, administered in a certain dose, is to be reckoned a laxative, and when given in an increased quantity is entitled to the appellation of a purgative. But we are inclined to think that purging produced by any of the gummy resins, as aloes or sagapene combined with rhubarb, differs essentially from the effects of a solution of any neutral salt. Neither do we consider the observations of the older writers concerning the powers of various purgatives to evacuate different humours as wholly undeserving of attention, although founded on a theory now become obsolete. Is it not consistent even with our present improved knowledge of the animal œconomy, to suppose that a purgative, which by producing an increased secretion of the fluids poured into the alimentary canal, throughout its whole length, emulges the biliary and pancreatic glands, may produce very different effects on the system from a medicine that operates chiefly on the large intestines? Experience obliges us also to differ with the doctor in supposing that the effects of purgatives, in reducing strength, ought rarely to be an objection to their employment. It is a fact well known to persons conversant with the treatment of horses, that the operation of a brisk cathartic will so debilitate a running horse, that he will not recover his usual rate of speed for several days; and for this reason purgatives are now much more rarely administered during the course of training than formerly. The analogy between these animals and the human species will hardly be objected to. The doctor seems to consider that the contents of the intestines being already as it were extraneous to the system, there is no more reason to apprehend any increase of debility from evacuating them, than from discharging the contents of the urinary bladder, and asks "who ever dreamed of even momentary debility, arising from voiding a pound or two of urine?" Has the doctor never heard of persons dying immediately after the evacuation of the water extravasated into the cavity of the abdomen in ascites by the operation of tapping? where death apparently originated in the sudden removal of the usual pressure. And delicate females have

sunk and expired almost immediately after delivery, from a similar reason. In these instances, to make use of the phraseology of the late John Hunter, the person died in consequence of the abstraction of the stimulus of distension.

Typhus fever is the first complaint in which the utility of purgative medicines is recommended. Avoiding all theoretical disquisition concerning the nature or causes of this disease, the doctor lays before his readers a candid statement of the circumstances which gradually led him to the exhibition of purgative medicines in this complaint. The preparation he first used was the calx antimonii nitrata, Ph. Ed. This he gave with the view of obviating spasm and determining to the surface, in compliance with the then prevalent theory of the exciting cause of fever. But having observed that this remedy was beneficial only in proportion as it produced copious evacuations from the bowels, he was gradually led to consider this effect as the leading principle to be attended to. Since that period he has used other purgatives with equal advantage, and is clearly of opinion that those which operate through the whole length of the intestinal canal are preferable to partial ones, such as clysters. By such a degree of purging as is sufficient to keep the intestinal tube free from any accumulation of fæces, the doctor states with confidence that he never saw debility augmented, and also that since he adopted this practice he has been enabled to conduct fever in general more frequently to a favourable termination, under the allowance of a much smaller quantity of wine than previously.

In the free use of purgative medicines in the incipient stage of fever, Dr. H. has certainly been anticipated by Lysons, in whose Observations on the Use of Camphor and Calomel in continued Fevers, published in the year 1771, a practice nearly similar is stated to have been followed by correspondent success. Most probably this publication never came under the doctor's notice; or, judging from the candour that pervades the whole of the present work, he would have given his precursor his due share of merit. The reputation of James's Powder, as a remedy in fever, has chiefly arisen from its affecting the bowels; for those who have employed it most frequently have observed that it was useful only in proportion as it proved purgative. This circumstance tends to corroborate the utility of a practice which the judicious observations of the present writer will extend and establish.

The next disease treated of is scarlatina. The various opinions of medical men concerning this disease, and the different modes of treatment recommended by them, he considers as dependent on the relative degrees of malignity of the prevailing epidemic, which may vary as much as the most confluent small-pock does from the mildest form of that disease which occurs. The common scarlatina, and cynanche maligna, he considers as different varieties of the same disease. In this complaint he con-

siders purgative medicines so employed as to obviate any accumulation of fæces, as the very best means of mitigating the morbid symptoms, as well as preventing the anasarcous swellings so frequently troublesome at the termination of this complaint. Purging to the extent of completely unloading the bowels is considered by the author as salutary practice, even in the worst species of cynanche maligna. The author supports his opinion of the utility of purgatives in cynanche maligna, by a letter published more than thirty years ago, in The Gentleman's Magazine, by a medical man of Ipswich; in which he states, that during the prevalence of an epidemic scarlatina in that town, he did not lose one of many hundred patients to whom purgative medicines were freely exhibited: and also by an interesting narrative of a complaint of a similar kind that prevailed among the children supported in an institution denominated Heriot's Hospital, in Edinburgh.

The author next proceeds to treat of the marasmus of children, the symptoms of which are detailed with minuteness and fidelity. This disease the doctor considers as being closely connected with torpor of the intestinal canal, and consequent accumulation of fæces. Purging is employed with success to remove this state; and the appearance of the fæces is recommended to be accurately and daily examined, as a return to their natural colour and odour, which during the prevalence of the disease undergo a remarkable change, affords the best criterion of the re-establishment of health. This diseased state of the intestines is considered by the author as frequently laying the foundation of hydrocephalus, and of epilepsy; and that by paying proper attention to the state of the alvine secretion the occurrence of these distressing and fatal diseases might in many cases be prevented.

In chorea Sancti Viti the doctor has found the administration of active purgatives attended with the most decided advantage. To the adoption of a similar practice he ascribes the success of Sydenham in his treatment of this disease. One case is narrated, in which the practice of purging was carried to a length truly astonishing, but was finally attended with most complete success. The quantity of feculent matter discharged in the course of a week, in such complaints, not unfrequently exceeds in weight the whole body of the patient. The more frequent occurrence of chorea in female than in male children, the doctor attributes to the form and capacity of the female pelvis tending to favour the accumulation of the alvine fæces.

Respecting the origin of chlorosis the author had been led to call in question the validity of the prevalent theories, and from attentive analogical observation to try the effect of purgatives,—a practice which proved highly successful. The observations on this class of diseases do much honour to the author's judgment, and from them we shall extract a paragraph, as affording an ex-

ample of that plain good sense which constitutes the prevailing character of the present work :

'It would have been fortunate if medical inquiries had always followed the progress of diseases step by step, and received them as a whole, from the first deviation from health to their termination. A contrary procedure has often betrayed us into confusion and error. It is not the febrile state that arises in marasmus; it is not the involuntary convulsive motions that appear in chorea, that constitute either disease. These are only single features; but being prominent ones, they have absorbed the attention of practitioners; while the interrupted action of the stomach and bowels, and the constipated state of the latter, the common origin of both diseases, and the supporter of their various symptoms, have been altogether overlooked.

'In like manner, in chlorosis, the doctrine of the cacochymia of the juices, and of the peculiar state of the genitals affecting the system with flaccidity and laxity, are evidently founded on the appearances which the disease exhibits when it is fully formed; and from which appearances also it has its name; when at the same time the history of its incipient state has been little regarded.

'The slightest attention to the general history of the disease evinces, that costiveness precedes and accompanies the other symptoms. Costiveness induces the feculent odour of the breath, disordered stomach, depraved appetite, and impaired digestion. These preclude a sufficient supply of nourishment, at a period of growth when it is most wanted: hence paleness, laxity, flaccidity, the nervous symptoms, wasting of the muscular flesh, languor, debility, the retention of the menses, and suspension of other secretions, serous effusions, dropsy, and death.'

The utility of purgatives is moreover pointed out in hæmatomosis, in hysteria, and in some chronic diseases. The utility of the practice is authenticated, and the precise manner in which it was pursued pointed out, by the accurate detail of many interesting cases, in an appendix. These do not admit of abridgment. There is also a view of the formulæ most commonly used by the author, accompanied with a table of the names given to medicines in the new and old pharmacopœias. This presents an alarming picture of the revolutionary spirit with which the chemical philosophers have of late years changed and re-changed the names of drugs. We find here, for example, what used to be called Glauber's salts, under four different denominations. We fear that many mistakes of a serious, if not of a fatal nature, may take place, ere the medical tyro, to whom the preparation of drugs is in this country most unwisely confided, can clearly arrange and readily distinguish all the various synonyms that may occur in the prescriptions of the physicians of different schools.

An attentive perusal of the present volume induces us to give it as our decided opinion, that the author has conferred a real

benefit on the public, by laying before them the result of an attentive experience of thirty years, concerning the utility and effects of so important a class of medicines. Every professional man must derive advantage from the new and interesting points of view in which some important complaints are placed, and from the successful treatment of them here detailed. We trust the present work may have some effect in tending to correct that inert mode of practice too prevalent, especially in the metropolis, in which the welfare of the patient is, we fear, often considered but as a secondary object to the interest of the practitioner; an evil, the source of which it would be much more easy to unveil, than to point out the means of removing it.

The extreme reluctance and diffidence with which Dr. Hamilton appears before the public as an author, disarms all criticism on the style of his performance. But surely some of those friends who he says perused his MS. and encouraged him to publish, might have prevented him from submitting such a strange provincialism as the following to the press. At page 61 there is the following expression: "Nevertheless, even now we are not at *one* as to the causes of hydrocephalus." A few others of the same stamp will be found to occur.

ART. XII.—*The Secret History of the Court and Cabinet of St. Cloud. In a Series of Letters from a Gentleman at Paris to a Nobleman in London, written in August, September, and October*, 1805. 12*mo*. 3 *Vols. Price* 1*l*. 1*s*. Murray, London. 1806.

THIS work commences with an assertion so frequently made before, where there was great reason to doubt of its truth, that the author will probably weaken the credibility of his evidence by what he doubtless intended to strengthen it. These letters are professed never to have been intended for the press; which is urged as an excuse for a less degree of perfection than they would otherwise have had. Of the first position we have great doubts; and for the excuse, we think it better omitted; for it is but an equivocal compliment to the public, to assert the knowledge of improvement which the author did not think it worth his while to bestow.

As no proofs are offered or attempted in support of any of the facts in this work, their authenticity stands alone supported by what we can gather from other sources, and from the comparison of circumstances, and the general complexion of the author's sentiments, manner, and account of his own circumstances and situation.

He professes in his prefatory letter to be in much fear of the danger he might incur from the discovery of his being even an

Anglican writer; but at the same time in his work he describes such particulars, intimacies, and personal anecdotes, that, if such a man exist in the circumstances he states, the most bungling of Bonaparte's spies cannot fail to point him out. He also shows a strong bias to criminate on all occasions, and in one or two instances evidently without cause; of which there is a remarkable instance in his account of mademoiselle Perregeaux, whom he describes as a well educated, accomplished young lady, "who would be more agreeable did not her continual smiles and laughing indicate a degree of self-satisfaction and complacency, which may be felt, but ought never to be published."

The crimes which have been fully proved against several of the principal characters he describes, place them in such a light, that scarcely any thing can be asserted of them too bad to be credible: but even here, in a few instances, the author has been unfortunate; and strange as it may seem, even Napoleone the Ist is accused of a vice to which it is incredible he should be addicted, though for a reason which does not suppose any virtue in the case; for it is to his well known bodily ailments alone that he is indebted for the honour of acquittal on this occasion. It is not necessary to point out the page where this accusation is made. When the reader meets it he cannot mistake, as the author has taken care to express himself on this disgusting subject with a degree of plainness rather unusual in English publications.

In another respect we think the character of Napoleone misstated: he is represented as deficient in mental ability, and actuated by a degree of folly, which on many occasions his best friends can scarcely restrain. The author has not been very happy in the chief examples he has chosen of this folly of Bonaparte. The whole business relative to the coronation by the pope was the offspring of a very obvious policy, which was any thing but foolish; and as to the mummery about the imitation of Charlemagne, it is the opinion of many that it was well calculated to dazzle and flatter his vain and frivolous countrymen; and that the exhibition of Charlemagne in all his glory, enacted by Napoleone with brilliant and expensive decorations, was as judiciously applied to what Voltaire calls the monkey part of their character, as his sanguinary exploits have been to the tiger portion of its composition. Nothing can be more injurious to any cause than to underrate the mental powers of an enemy. While we are on our guard against the malignant craft that guides his counsels, we are safe; but when we flatter ourselves that we have a fool to deal with, the want of caution this naturally produces is the most effectual advantage he can gain over us. Whether this crafty policy which has been evinced on so many occasions proceeds from Napoleone, or that he has sense enough to turn the brains of Talleyrand, Sieyes, or even of his brother Joseph, to account, it is equally fatal to the interests of Europe; and it cer-

tainly is no mark of folly to know where to find serviceable council, and to use it when found.

Other circumstances mentioned of Bonaparte carry with them an air of veracity that commands our assent. His introduction of military regulations into his court is of this nature, and is thus described:

'The discipline of the Court of St. Cloud is as singular as its composition is unique. It is, by the regulation of Napoleone, entirely military. From the empress to her lowest chambermaid, from the emperor's first aid-de-camp down to his youngest page, any slight offence or negligence is punished with confinement either private or public. In the former case, the culprits are shut up in their own apartments; but in the latter, they are ordered into one of the small rooms, constructed in the dark galleries at the Thuilleries and St. Cloud, near the kitchens; where they are guarded day and night by sentries, who answer for their persons, and that nobody visits them.' Vol. i. p. 63.

The account of madame Bonaparte undergoing this discipline on the first day of imperial exhibition, for neglecting to appoint proper attendants on that occasion according to order, is also curious.

'It was near two o'clock in the afternoon when she was thus shut up. Remembering the recent flattery of her courtiers, and comparing it with the unfeeling treatment of her husband, she found herself so much the more unfortunate, as the expressions of the former were regarded by her as praise due to her merit, while the unkindness of the latter was unavailingly resented as the undeserved oppression of a capricious despot.

'Business, or perhaps malice, made Napoleone forget to send her any dinner; and when, at eight o'clock, his brothers and sisters came according to invitation to take tea, he said coldly, "A-propos, I forgot it, my wife has not dined yet; she is busy, I suppose, in her philosophical meditations in her study." madame Louis Bonaparte, her daughter, flew directly towards the study, and her mother could scarcely, for her tears, inform her that she was a prisoner, and that her husband was her gaoler. "Oh, sire!" said Madame Louis, returning, "even this remarkable day is a day of mourning for my poor mother!"—"She deserves worse," answered Napoleone, "but for your sake, she shall be released; here is the key, let her out.' Vol. i. p. 72.

Bonaparte seems to have a passion for acting the part of a gaoler. Cardinal Caprara, the pope's nuncio, had also the honour of having the grand emperor to officiate in this capacity for him. In this anecdote there appears something like humour in the conduct of Bonaparte; but we believe it is only appearance, for nothing but gloomy gravity can exist in a mind which has indicated so many marks of ferocious malignity.

'It is said that one day last January, after having been for hours exceedingly teasing and troublesome, Bonaparte lost his patience, and was going to treat his eminence as he frequently does his relatives, his ministers and counsellors; that is to say, to kick him from his presence; but suddenly recollecting himself, he said, "Cardinal, remain here in my closet until my return, when I shall have more time to listen to what you have to relate." It was at ten o'clock in the morning, and a day of great military audience and grand review. In going out he put the key in his pocket, and told the guards in his anti-chamber to pay no attention, if they should hear any noise in his closet.

'It was dark before the review was over, and Bonaparte had a large party to dinner. When his guests retired he went into his wife's drawing-room, where one of the pope's chamberlains waited on him with the information, that his holiness was much alarmed about the safety of cardinal Caprara, of whom no account could be obtained, even by the assistance of the police, to which application had been made, since his eminence had so suddenly disappeared. "Oh! how absent I am!" answered Napoleone, as with surprise; "I entirely forgot that I left the cardinal in my closet this morning: I will go myself and make an apology for my blunder." His eminence, quite exhausted, was found fast asleep; but no sooner was he a little recovered, than he interrupted Bonaparte's affected apology, with the repetition of the demand he had made in the morning: and so well was Napoleone pleased with him, for neglecting his personal inconvenience, only to occupy himself with the affairs of his sovereign, that he consented to what was asked, and in laying his hand upon the shoulders of the prelate, said: "Faithful minister! was every prince so well served as your sovereign is by you, many evils might be prevented, and much good effected.' Vol. i. p. 82.

We have not sufficient knowledge of courts to determine whether the following opinion of the author's respecting them is just; but we should think that of St. Cloud, which has suggested the observation, is not more likely than any other to be managed in this manner.

'With most princes, the supple courtier and the fawning favourite have greater influence than the profound statesman and subtle minister; and the determinations of cabinets are therefore frequently prepared in drawing-rooms, and discussed in the closet. The politician and the counsellor are frequently applauded or censured for transactions which the intrigues of anti-chambers conceived, and which cupidity and favour gave power to promulgate.' Vol. i. p. 2.

In page 156 vol. i. the author seems inclined to make some excuse for Bonaparte's conduct.

'I could not help deploring the fate of a despot, even while I abhorred his unnatural power. The curses, the complaints, and reproaches for all the crimes, all the violence, all the oppression perpetrated in his name, are entirely thrown upon him; while his situation and occupation do not admit the seeing and hearing every thing and

every body himself; he is often forced therefore to judge according to the report of an impostor; to sanction with his name the hatred, malignity, or vengeance of culpable individuals; and to sacrifice innocence to gratify the vile passions of his vilest slave.'

The last accusation against Bonaparte which we shall notice, is that which, if true, would stamp his character with the most base and degrading cruelty: but of its truth we cannot form any decided judgment, either from facts or circumstances. This is the inhuman treatment of our brave and unfortunate countryman, captain Wright, whom the author asserts to have ended his life under a series of tortures which, in refined barbarity, far exceed those inflicted by the savage Americans on their wretched prisoners. Bonaparte must know that the secrets of our government are not intrusted to those so low in command as captain Wright, and that sir Sydney Smith, who might be supposed to have imparted his opinions to him, was very much, and very undeservedly, neglected by our rulers: he also must know that the effect of torture is to make a man speak any thing, or nothing, and consequently, that what is gathered from this detestable expedient is not to be depended on. If, then, he really directed this disgraceful business, as represented, it could only proceed from a motive that must ever brand his name with infamy—cowardly and mean revenge for his defeat at Acre, of which the gallant captain was an active and efficient instrument.

Bonaparte is represented in this work as a liberal patron to poets and artists who contribute in any manner, however imperfect, to his celebrity. A curious mistake of a German artist, and his consequent disappointment, to which this known propensity gave rise, is mentioned in vol. ii.

'The only artist I ever heard of who was disappointed and unrewarded for his labour, in attempting to *eternize* the memory of Napoleone Bonaparte, was a German, of the name of Schumacker. It is indeed allowed that he was more industrious, able, and well-meaning than ingenious or considerate. He did not consider that it would be no compliment to give the *immortal* hero a hint of being a *mortal* man. Schumacker had employed near three years in planning and executing in marble the prettiest model of a sepulchral monument I have ever seen, read, or heard of. He had inscribed it, *The future tomb of Buonaparte the Great*. Under the patronage of count de Beust, he arrived here; and I saw the model in the house of this minister, of the German elector arch-chancellor, where also many French artists went to inspect it. Count de Beust asked De Segur, the grand master of the ceremonies, to request the emperor to grant Schumacker the honour of showing him his performance. De Segur advised him to address himself to Duroc, who referred him to Denon, who, after looking at it, could not help paying a just tribute to the execution and to the talents of the artist, though he disapproved of the subject, and declined mentioning it to the emperor. After three months attendance in this capital, and all petitions and memorials to our great folks remaining unanswered, Schumacker obtained an audience

of Fouchè, in which he asked permission to exhibit his model of Bonaparte's tomb to the public for money, so as to be enabled to return to his country. "Where is it now?" asked Fouchè. "At the minister's of the elector arch-chancellor," answered the artist. "But where do you intend to show it for money?" continued Fouchè. "In the Palais Royal."—"Well, bring it there," replied Fouchè. The same evening that it was brought there Schumacker was arrested by a police commissary, his model packed up, and with himself put under the care of two gens-d'armes, who carried them both to the other side of the Rhine.' P. 217.

The characters of most of the principal people connected with the French government are given pretty largely; and with the exception of general Marmont, and one or two more, all the rest are nearly as bad as can be conceived. These few exceptions, however, show that villany and inhumanity are not indispensable requisites for Bonaparte's favour, which his usual selection of favourites would lead one to suppose. The author seems greatly inclined to favour Lucien Bonaparte, and represents him as the most amiable of the family; but still, not being able to deny the accusations against him, attempts to hide them in eclipse by Napoleone's superior wickedness.

'I know, with all France and Europe, that Lucien's youth has been very culpable; that he has committed many indiscretions, much injustice, many imprudences, many errors, and, I fear, even some crimes. I know that he has been the most profligate among the profligate, the most debauched among libertines, the most merciless among plunderers, and the most perverse among rebels. I know that he is accused of being a Septembrizer; of having murdered one wife and poisoned another; of having been a spy, a denouncer, a persecutor of innocent persons in the reign of terror. I know that he is accused of having fought his brothers-in-law; of having ill-used his mother: and of an incestuous commerce with his own sisters. I have read and heard of these and other enormous accusations; and far be it from me to defend, extenuate, or even deny them. But suppose all this infamy to be real, to be proved, to be authenticated, which it never has been; and to its whole extent, I am persuaded, never can be; what are the cruel and depraved acts of which Lucien has been *accused*, to the enormities and barbarities of which Napoleone is convicted? Is the poisoning a wife more criminal than the poisoning a whole hospital of wounded soldiers? or the assisting to kill some confined persons, suspected of being enemies, more atrocious than the massacre, in cold blood, of thousands of disarmed prisoners?' Vol. ii. P. 8.

The worst of the bad characters described is certainly that of Fouchè; and this will serve as a sample of the rest.

'This man is one of the most immoral characters the revolution has dragged forward from obscurity. It is more difficult to mention a crime that he has not perpetrated, than to discover a good or just action that he ever performed. He is so notorious a villain that even the

infamous national convention expelled him from its bosom, and since his ministry, no man has been found base enough, in my debased country, to extenuate, much less to defend, his past enormities. In a nation so greatly corrupted and immoral, this alone is more than negative evidence.

'As a friar before the revolution, *he has avowed* in his correspondence with the national convention, that he never believed in a God; and as one of the first public functionaries of a republic, he has *officially denied* the existence of virtue. He is therefore as unmoved by tears as by reproaches, and as inaccessible to remorse as hardened against repentance. With him interest and bribes are every thing, and honour and honesty nothing. The supplicant or the pleader who appears before him with no other support than the justice of his cause, is fortunate indeed, if, after being cast, he is not also confined or ruined, and perhaps both; while a line from one of the Bonapartes, or a purse of gold, changes black to white, guilt to innocence, removes the scaffold waiting for the assassin, and extinguishes the faggots lighted for the parricide. His authority is so extensive, that on the least signal, with one blow, from the extremities of France to her centre, it crushes the cot and the palace; and his decisions, against which there is no appeal, are so destructive, that they never leave any traces behind them, and Bonaparte, Bonaparte *alone*, can prevent or arrest their effect.' Vol. i. p. 159.

The character of Sieyes might also be given here, but it would extend this article too far.

Most of the characters which the author describes are mentioned to have amassed large sums of money, many equal to half a million of our money, and some as much as even two millions. The author seems apprehensive in p. 121, vol. iii., that this great accumulation of wealth in France will be attended with much danger to us; but it is not the bloated wealth of a few individuals that constitutes the riches of a nation. That country, of whose inhabitants the great majority are in easy circumstances, must ever be more powerful in pecuniary resources; nor can the hoarded rapine of disciplined robbers be ever made to produce such effects, let its accumulation be ever so great. It is security of property alone which can make a nation rich; for this security affords the only true basis for commerce. A tyrant may have ships, he may have colonies, but he can never have commerce; for under him neither life nor property can be secure.

In the twenty-second letter, vol. iii., is given an account of immense naval preparations making by Bonaparte; and of a plan to build twenty ships of the line and twenty frigates, besides cutters, every year, for ten successive years. The author endeavours to render this credible by a statement of the number of forests and other resources for naval equipment, at present in the power of the French chief. This, if true, demands proportional exertion on our part, and every endeavour to extend our means for this purpose.

In the seventeenth chapter, vol. iii., the military education of

the French youth is described. In every school some hours each day are allotted to drilling and training the pupils in military manœuvres; so that, when levies are made, the young men come into the field with a degree of expertness that renders them instantly serviceable. This plan, the author asserts, must render France much more powerful than its rivals, and will at last enable it "to dispose at leisure of empires, kingdoms, principalities, and republics, which nothing can prevent, but *the adoption of similar measures for their preservation as have been adopted for their subjugation.*"

This chapter is a full answer to those who have seen danger in teaching a whole nation the use of arms, and giving a military character to men of every class and description. In fact, if he who rules with the iron hand of force has no apprehension in making soldiers of all his subjects, what can our mild and beneficent government apprehend with justice from a similar policy?

The danger of neutrality in the present contest is well described in the eighth letter, vol. iii., and the following observation on this head deserves notice:

'Had all other nations been united and unanimous, during 1793 and 1794, against the monster Jacobinism, we should not have heard of either jacobin directors, jacobin consuls, or a jacobin emperor. But then, from a petty regard to a temporary profit, they entered into a truce with a revolutionary volcano, which, sooner or later, will consume them all; for I am afraid that it is now too late for all human power, with all human means, to preserve any state, any government, or any people, from suffering by the threatening conflagration. Switzerland, Venice, Geneva, Genoa, and Tuscany, have already gathered the poisoned fruits of their neutrality. Let but Bonaparte establish himself undisturbed in Hanover some years longer, and you will see the neutral Hanse Towns, neutral Prussia, and neutral Denmark, visited with all the evils of invasion, pillage, and destruction, and the independence of the nations of the north will be buried in the rubbish of the liberties of the people of the south of Europe.' P. 103.

The impolicy of the Austrians in their late campaign is well pointed out in letter twenty-four, vol. iii., and is justly attributed in a great degree to the adoption of "half measures;" a mode of conduct equally injurious to private and public affairs, wherever they are used.

The great poverty and misery of the mass of the French people is feelingly related in letter sixteen, vol. ii., and is touched on in several other places, particularly in p. 268, vol. iii.; where the apathy produced by their wretchedness is represented to be so great, that the application of the bayonet was necessary to force them to illuminate for the late victories in Germany.

The author, in p. 314, vol. i., and elsewhere, has addressed some very fulsome compliments to our men in power; which induces a supposition that he imagined their appetite for flattery to be as gross as that of the sovereign *canaille* of his own country.

In one or two places an erroneous mode of expression is used approaching to the blunder, such as in p. 221, vol. iii., where general Knobelsdorff is represented as composed of four halves, if the words be taken literally: "A demi-philosopher, a demi-savant, a demi-gallant, and a demi-politician, constitute, all taken together, nothing except an insignificant courtier."

In general this work is extremely interesting, and the descriptions animated and well drawn; and we will venture to promise the reader much amusement from its perusal; but can only state it as a book of amusement, as there is no proof given of any of the facts or secret histories the writer has professed to state. He appears to be well acquainted with his ground, and whether he deals in fiction or in truth he gives probability to his tale.

A wholesome lesson, however, may be drawn from the general accounts of the present rulers of France, by the lower classes of all nations. They show in the clearest manner that rulers suddenly exalted from their own body are the most unmerciful, inhuman, and tyrannical of any; and that a rash and violent subversion of the several orders of men, with a view to reform the governors, before the mass of a people have acquired virtue and patriotism, has never failed to produce degradation and the worst of slavery.'

ART. XIII.—*Account of the State of France and its Government for the last Three Years; particularly as it has Relation to the Belgic Provinces, and the Treatment of the English. By Israel Worsley, detained as an Hostage.* 12mo. 267 *Pages. Price* 6s. Johnson, London. 1806.

A SECRET history of France has just passed under our discussion, and the clouds which hung over our subject produced much doubt with regard to the writer as well as his facts. We now direct our attention to a public history; of which the writer appears in his proper person, who, while he makes no pretension to extraordinary means of development or discovery, maintains his open claim to credit on the usual grounds of his own responsibility, and the internal evidence of the circumstances he relates.

Mr. Israel Worsley, the writer, had established a school in France immediately after the revolution, but was compelled to return to England in consequence of the perpetual changes of the government and the severe measures of its rulers, which threatened the whole republic with dissolution. The peace of Amiens furnished an opportunity of resuming his employment; but scarcely had he again settled himself when the decree of Bonaparte, respecting the arrest of the English, was promulgated, and he, with others, became prisoner of state.

'The arrest of the English began directly after the capture of the

French merchant-ships by order of the English ministry, and without any declaration of war. The only reprisal which the grand consul had in his power to make, was the seizure of the persons of the British subjects who were then on the French territory. Without stopping to inquire into the legitimacy or expediency of the measure, it may be observed, that no law of nations will justify it, no precedent of a civilized nation will warrant it, nor has it found any advocates even amongst the subjects of the emperor. They stigmatize without scruple his conduct as unwise, and condemn it as inhuman. He was undoubtedly urged to it by a spirit of revenge against a power which had acted, as he thought, unfairly by his subjects, and wreaked that revenge upon a set of men who, he presumed, were dear to their country, and perhaps thought, that should the misunderstanding be of a short duration, he could exchange one unlawful seizure for another. Such appears to have been the first pretence for their arrest; afterwards another and very different reason was assigned for this measure. When the descent upon England was seriously intended, and it was supposed that the fury of the English would overcome every other principle, and that all their prisoners would be sacrificed to their indignation, Buonaparte was said to retain the hostages as a security for the lives of his own people, and to have determined upon making the former suffer whatever evils might fall to the lot of the latter. In this apprehension, the English in France were, for a considerable time, rendered extremely unhappy; for, dear as their own lives were to themselves and families, they could not but hope that every Frenchman who landed in their country might find a grave there, rather than be the means of introducing the confusion and misery that had already followed every where in their train.' P. 4.

The confusion and mischiefs arising from this order, with the author's own particular share of misfortune, are related in the commencing chapters of his book; and very impressively show the evils, not only of unjust public measures, but of the want of those established and sacred forms of law which constitute the only ramparts against the perpetual tyranny of subordinate functionaries. His hopes of redress, and the several vexatious and distressing changes of situation to which he was exposed in the progress to total ruin, form a tale, every part of which must come home to the breast of the reader;—who even at this moment has to reflect that it is to our power and exertions alone that we must be indebted for an exemption from similar oppressions in our own country.

After many vicissitudes the author made his escape. The concluding incidents are thus related:

'The author stopped longer at Lomond than he intended, because the person to whom he was recommended by his guide was not at home, and it was necessary he should procure information of the route he ought to pursue. He went on by his advice to another person. When he entered the house, the Dutchman looked at him with a curiosity that he did not like, because it seemed to betoken no good. After inquiring his way to Breda, the Dutchman said, "There was an Englishman stopped two days ago at Holvenne, from whom they took

a good deal of money, and he has got away again: I thought it might be you."—"Oh, no!" replied the author, "I am a Frenchman."—"Well," said the Dutchman, "I mentioned it with a view to serve you, if you were the person, for the gens-d'armes are now in the village, and have asked leave of the mayor to search through it, and they have traced him over the sands by the print of his boots."

'The author's agitation may easily be conceived when he thought himself likely once more to fall into the hands of his enemies, and of the risk he had actually run, for he had passed a few minutes before in front of the house where they then were, and one of them was the man to whom he had been presented the evening before. He thought truth would serve him better than falsehood: he declared that he was the man, and begged for his friendly assistance.

'The Dutchman used every assurance to restore tranquillity to his mind, conveyed him away into a private place where he could not be discovered, and sent him victuals and drink. While in this retreat, the mayor came with a long pipe in his mouth to greet him, to congratulate him on his escape, and feelingly to lament the loss of his money. He told him the gens-d'armes were gone, and assured him, upon his word, that if they returned and found him, he would not allow them to make him their prisoner. He added, that the author had great merit in their eyes, because he had been too deep for the Frenchmen, and that he might command every assistance they could give. He spent the evening with these excellent people, and the next morning the father of his good "friend in need" set off with him for Bois le Duc. He refused to take any money for the entertainment he had received at his house, and put him into the bark, which conveyed him the same day to Rotterdam.' P. 46.

He found his family waiting at Rotterdam; but did not dare to offer himself to go in the English packet, because the French commissioners were particularly strict. He therefore proceeded to Amsterdam, where he experienced much kindness, and obtained a Prussian passport for Emden; whence he safely took his passage for England, and arrived at Gravesend pennyless.

The author's account of himself occupies the first 50 pages of his book. The remainder consists of facts and observations relating to subjects of general importance, but which are rendered more particularly interesting on account of the relative situations of the French and British empires. The animosity of Buonaparte to the English is shown in various instances, together with the proofs he gave of it, which were carried into effect by men whom the convulsions of the revolution had raised from low situations, and who are devoted to their chief from a great number of causes. The author, however, confines himself more particularly to the Netherlands, of which he takes up the history in a concise narrative, beginning at the troubles in the time of the emperor Joseph II. who dismantled their fortifications and destroyed the outworks of their garrison towns, besides abolishing many of their establishments for religious seclusion. This work, begun by Joseph, was completed by the French revolution. The

author's remarks on the battle of Jemappes; and his transition to the import of French words and phrases, are instructive and at the same time amusing. He tells us that our neighbours have hyperbolized and complimented till their language has ceased to convey those inflated sentiments which Englishmen are apt to think its words and phrases imply. But as we have no reason to suppose the French of the present day are less disposed to boast than their forefathers, we may still safely conclude that the magnifying powers of their description continue to exceed the measure of plain truth.

'Our readers will no doubt have imagined that the celebrated battle of Jemappes was fought upon a distinguished eminence; and, if they recollect the description given of that battle, will suppose that the French troops had to ascend a lofty mountain, on whose declivity were placed the Austrian redoubts strongly entrenched one above another, so as to have been almost impregnable. Such certainly was the idea conveyed by the French accounts of that engagement. The fact is, the Austrians were encamped on a gentle rise, up which the plough passes with the greatest ease, and where there is now scarcely any appearance of fortifications having ever been raised. The redoubts of the Austrians were breast-works thrown up at the moment and defended by their cannon. And certainly those who will seek "reputation at the cannon's mouth" must do it at an immense risk. To do all justice to the French republican soldiers, it must be confessed that the attack was well conducted, and gained them an immortal reputation; but when their account of a battle is to be translated into English, or is read by our countrymen in their own language, a due consideration ought to be paid to the genius of the two languages, and the two people, which is so materially different; a regard also must be had to the meaning of the correspondent terms, which frequently differ. A mountain in French, is often a little hill in English, as a man in France would be charmed with a thing with which an Englishman would scarcely be satisfied; and an act of civility which would make an English lady blush, cannot be dispensed with in a French society. It is in consequence of the custom of translating literally from their gazettes, that we gain sometimes an idea of what they say, or of what they do, vastly greater than even they themselves have ever entertained; and hence they have been often charged with gasconading and with flattery, neither of which, in fact, was intended. Though the French appear to us given to bombast, and devoted to compliment, yet it may be doubted whether they have really more of the one or the other than the inhabitants of our island, because custom has taught them, though it has not us, the meaning of the words they employ; and we well know that all governments view in an equally favourable light, and describe in the most pointed language, the advantages which they gain over their enemies, and are equally unsolicitous about adhering too closely to the truth.' P. 82.

The sale of the church property was gratifying to the mass of the people; but the new state of things under the oppression of taxes and the stagnation of industry has not bettered their situa-

tion. The towns have become poor and miserable; but cultivators have become rich: more in all probability from the revolution of property, which has enabled the present possessors of lands to have acquired and cultivated them at a small expense, than from any actual augmentation in the produce of the soil. Misery of every description had arrived to such a height, that a termination of revolutionary measures under the present chief of France was received as a blessing; for it is better to obey the arbitrary will of any man than to be subject to the mischievous caprice of a multitude. The author gives a clear and interesting account of the transitions of landed property; the destruction of woods and trees, under the pretence of constructing a flotilla; and the univeral pillage of public property by the government agents. The summary of these facts is not only impressive, but strongly indicates the knowledge and good sense of the writer.

'The taxes have been more than tripled since the entrance of the French into the country; their wealth has been drawn away to the metropolis of France, and a considerable part of it lost for ever. The commerce which used to be considerable with Holland and England, has been annihilated by the severe ordinances of Napoleon. The manufactured goods which they would buy from other countries are forbidden to enter theirs, and the produce of their land and of its bowels confined within the limits of their own territory. The circulating medium is small; no paper money of any description is found in the departments; the farmers are become independent, and are able to give, in some degree, the law to the markets; and a middle set of men have lately sprung up in the country, who, by making the produce of the land an article of trade, feed the markets, or hold back the grain, as circumstances may be favourable or otherwise. Besides which, their manufactures have never yet assumed any vigour; they are conducted on a small scale, with capitals often inadequate to their demand. The minute division of labour, which may be estimated the very soul of manufactures, and which enables the English to outdo every other nation, is not yet generally adopted there. There is nothing but vegetables that can be deemed cheap in France; for, though other things are a little lower than in England, yet the resources of the industrious part of the nation are so scanty, and their pay so small, that they are in fact much dearer to the buyer than the same articles are, under similar circumstances, in England. To this should be added, that manufactured goods are either much worse or much dearer than here: so that, although the tradesman has a smaller amount of taxes to pay in France, there is little doubt that he has a better chance of improving his fortune in England, under all the burdens of government, than he would have in France, with the same prudence to direct his affairs. The difficulty which the middling and lower classes of men experience of living is very great, and their complaints are loud and unceasing.' P. 110.

Some of the taxes are mentioned; and the author gives Bonaparte credit for successfully imitating the system adopted in our

own country. This, like every other scientific subject, cannot perhaps be discussed by parts taken at random. The desirable conditions of taxation seem to be, that it should be raised from those portions of the general income which can best spare it; and accordingly we find that capital already accumulated, and those objects of expense called luxuries, have generally been singled out to pay this contribution. The wines, spirits, and beer of France are heavily taxed. Transfers of property do not pay an auction tax, as with us, but the sellers of almost every article pay an annual sum for a license. Cards, legal papers, and documents, together with every page of the ledger of a man of business, who means to produce his books in evidence, are subject to stamp duties; and they have also taxes on land, windows, doors, household furniture, persons (by annual capitation), manufactured and printed goods, post horses, turnpikes, and printed books. It seems that the government cares very little for the complaints of the people, and does not even take any steps to repress them in the departments. It may be imagined, however, that they are not so inattentive in the metropolis. On this and other correspondent subjects the author thus expresses himself:

'We have said, that the people's complaints are loud; nor let it be imagined, that they are afraid of finding fault with the government, or suspicious that their neighbours should denounce them as hostile to the state. There is not a greater liberty of speech in England, either in private company, or in public houses, than there is in France, relative to the proceedings of their rulers. Without speaking of friendly parties, in which conversation must every where be free, political subjects are freely discussed in taverns and clubs; and no one seems afraid to declare his disapprobation of public measures. If any thing personal transpire in that country, as well as in this, a man would run the risk of being called to order, and in perhaps a similar way; for it amounts to about the same thing, whether a *habeas corpus* act has no existence, or whether it can be set aside on every pretended emergency.

'There is an essential difference, in the opinion to be formed of the arrangements made and adopted by the two governments. Our constitution holds the king to be free from guilt, and charges all the imperfections of government upon his ministers, as upon the counsellors and agents of the king: there, the ministers are the instruments of their chief, and do only as he directs. The manner in which the important decisions of Buonaparte are formed, is as follows:—When he has some expedition to send out, some new tax to impose, or some general measure to adopt, he calls his council, which is known to be composed of the greatest characters in France. He has found out the means of attaching men of all parties to his interest: he does not ask whether they are protestants, or catholics; whether they were the partisans of the late king, or of avowed republican principles; whether they had sided with the Brissotines, with the party of Robespierre, or with the factions that afterwards ruled the republic. All party distinctions have been evidently set out of the question; and his only

object has been, to unite men the most celebrated for their information, their depth of thought, or their experience in the affairs of states and of empires.

'If the past lives of the privy counsellors of Napoleon were examined, and contrasted, it would be found that they form the most motley crew that ever assembled to discuss a political question. But that is of no consequence; they are men of considerable sagacity, and he wants them only for advice. These he calls together, tells them he has such an object in view, requests to know their opinions of its success, and the best means of executing it; and desires them to give him their sentiments on a certain day. On that day he meets them again, hears what each of them has to say, suffers the question to be fully discussed before him, and retires to decide upon his measures. That done, his secretary is set to work; and no one knows his determination, till the affair has actually taken place. He is therefore the prime mover in all the affairs of the French empire; and to him alone accrues the credit of their success, or the dishonour of their failure.

'The subordinate affairs of state must necessarily be regulated by inferior instruments; but all the main springs are directed by himself. It will not appear surprising that a man who bears perpetually so much upon his mind should be irritable and passionate. If he were not quick, it would be impossible for him to get through his work; and great characters have always some blemish that serves to take off the brilliancy of their splendid talents.. Buonaparte discovers extreme irritability, if opposed in any favourite scheme; or if his orders be not executed with great rapidity. He not unfrequently uses the *coup de pied* for his *argumentum ad hominem*, upon those who attend about his person; and even, it has been said, upon his confidential secretary; so that they who are near him, are in a continual trepidation when any thing has ruffled his temper. At other times, as is usual with such characters, he is perfectly familiar and pleasant, and becomes their companion.

'The liberty of the press in France is not equal to the liberty of speech; its consequences are more fatally extensive, and may with greater ease be prevented. It has been long forbidden to circulate English newspapers in France; and it may be presumed, that the extracts taken from them by the Moniteur and other papers are so mutilated as not to bear a similarity to the originals. No newspaper can be published in the country without the MS. being first examined by the prefect or some other person whom he appoints; and no bookseller dare expose to sale any books of a licentious nature, or dangerous political tendency, under the dread of a domiciliary visit, and consequent arrestation and imprisonment.' P. 117.

The account of the conscription, or perpetual forced levy for the armies of France, deserves particular notice.

'There is yet a source of grief of which the conquered countries complain most bitterly. It is the cruel and heart-rending law of the conscription; which requires the inhabitants to part with their sons when arrived at the age of manhood, to fight the battles of a power they hate, and to die for a man whose government they abominate.

Under their old emperor, soldiers were raised by recruiting, and the widowed mother might solace herself in the advancing years of her son, who was to be the prop and father of her family; but now she looks with terror to the age of twenty-one, as to the arrival of a tempest that will sweep away all her hopes. The execution of the conscript laws is very rigid, the demand for men having been so great that supplies cannot be met with without difficulty, and at great expense, and government is not easily pleased in the replacement of a strong well-made young man.

'Every child that is born in France must be carried to the town-house within twenty-four hours after its birth, to be registered, and in order that the officer may ascertain its sex by inspection. For a trifling fee he will take his register to the parent's house, if the child be ill, or he desired to do so. Every death must likewise be registered at the town-house; or, if it happen in a village, at the office of the mayor of that village. And as the state acknowledges no distinction in its subjects when born, so also it knows none after their death, but appoints a common burial-place without the town, where all have an equal right to inter, and may use their different rites and ceremonies as they please.

'Besides the registers of births and deaths, there is a correct statement of the population made out every year by the police officer, and no one can come into a city or township without its being known to the police, who wait upon him to inquire whence he comes, and whether he is the bearer of a regular passport. In this way the exact population of the country is ascertained, and the number in every town is known. No register is admitted but that which is taken from the public books; and, as a full right of citizenship exists, the state asks no question about the baptism or non-baptism of its children, nor whether they are catholics, protestants, or Jews, but ascertains and preserves with equal care the accounts of their births and deaths. The convenience of this regulation, as it relates to succession, is evident. But that is not the principal object the government has in view in inscribing so carefully the ages of the subjects. The important point gained is, to be able to ascertain when their young men were born, and when their turn is come to render their country a personal service. It is not possible for any to escape; for if they are absent from home, on whatever pretence, or in whatever country, at the time of their coming of age, they must appear to take their chance with the rest, or their parents will be subject to very heavy penalties.

'The minister of war makes his annual report, to the minister of the interior, of the number of young men wanted for the ensuing year. The minister divides this number according to the population of the departments; the prefects divide it again by the population of the district; and the districts divide it between the towns and communes, in the same proportion. All the young men of the age of twenty-one are required to be present at the drawing. If they have any natural defect, be it ever so small, they are not called upon; but, as every one must bear his proportion in the defence of his country, the parents of those who do not draw lots pay three times the amount of their taxes for that year, as a recompense for the personal services of their children. If they are poor, and pay no taxes, they are exempted altogether, on the ground of incapacity.

'Among the young men are often some who have an inclination to be soldiers. They draw the first, and, if the lot does not fall on them, they take other men's chances for a sum of money agreed upon, and may happen to draw three or four billets before they take hold of the fatal one. What renders it peculiarly difficult to replace a man, is, than none can be received as substitutes but those of the same year, and perfectly free from defect. The prefet and the gendarmes are present to regulate the drawing, and it is in their power to let any escape whom they are inclined to favour. At the drawing at Amiens, for the year twelve, four young men of respectable families, who were students at Paris in music and drawing, came down to take their chance with the rest. A respectable physician, at whose house the writer was on a visit, made out attestations of imbecility and disease, and, the gendarmes being previously gained over, they were rejected when they presented themselves to draw the lot; being told, that men like them, with natural infirmities, were not fit persons to be received into the army.

'Those who are fortunate enough to escape in the drawing, are not liable to be called upon any more, except the new conscripts desert before they arrive at the army, in which case others must supply their places. If there happen an extraordinary demand, more than can be supplied out of the conscription of the year, a demand is made in advance upon the succeeding year, that is, upon the youth of twenty, and some of them are taken before they would be liable to serve in the regular course of law. The time of service is limited to six years; but a military power, in the time of war, does not scruple to detain them eight or ten years, or even more. The number of troops required, the dread of losing their lives in a foreign land, and the extreme difficulty of finding substitutes, make the price of them very high. Of late years it has mounted up to a hundred pounds, but the more common price is about forty or fifty. Let it, however, be remembered, that these are large sums in comparison of the same in our country. In this way were our ancestors served by the Romans in the time of their greatness, and this will be the liberty their descendants will enjoy, if ever they become associated to the military state of France; our sons will be called away to fight its battles abroad, and our industry will supply the luxury of its capital.' P. 125.

The general impression in France respecting Buonaparte considers him as the saviour of his country. And indeed, when we reflect on the horrors and atrocities of the revolution; the little knowledge and experience which the French people have ever had of that rational liberty and defence of property on which the welfare of nations so essentially depends; and the great ignorance of the multitude;—when we at the same time consider that their present chief has, by his conduct and military skill, raised the reputation of the empire, and placed it in a rank it never before possessed;—that he is assiduously attentive to public affairs; and though not entitled to high estimation either as a politician or an œconomist, he is strongly desirous of promoting the national prosperity:—if we attend to these circumstances, we shall not wonder at their conclusions.

The ruler of France appears to have been grossly mistaken in the means of establishing manufactories; which do not consist in the distribution of prizes, and the empty parade of unsubstantial encouragement. It is not improbable, however, that his apparent exertions in their favour may have been nothing more than an offering to popularity, from the consul, who meditated his own elevation to the imperial dignity. We hear no more of this at present. Where capital is universally wanting, and moveable property is subject to every kind of vexation and seizure, there can be no establishment of manufactures.

'The manufactories of France, in general, are in a very low state; and most of the English, who, encouraged by the flattering promises of the consul, had established them in the republic, have been grievously disappointed. There are very few articles in which they excel. The common woollen cloths and hosiery are ill executed, because they are ill spun, and, of cotton articles, though great exertions have been made to improve them, they have hardly any that are fit to use. The English cottons, both for men and women's wear, are as much esteemed in that country as in this; and if good ones are to be bought there, they must have come from England; for although large quantities are manufactured in France, and many new fabricks have been established since the peace of Amiens, they have not produced any yet that can compare with ours. Many causes contribute to this. The want of capital induces them to buy the inferior cottons; they are not capable of making a good thread of them; and therefore, if the workmen were good, they could not make a good article. But their spinning is also imperfect. Englishmen have introduced the spinning machines into France; but being as yet little accustomed to their use, the people do not derive a proper advantage from them. Besides this, there is not a manufacturing spirit among the people. Satisfied with small possessions, and requiring but little to live in independence, it never can enter a Frenchman's head that a man who has thousands will venture those thousands in search of more. And, if he has been persuaded to risk a few hundreds in a manufacturing adventure, he begins to think his money lost if he do not receive his interest in a few months, or, perhaps, in as many weeks. Money is at an exorbitant interest; one per cent. per month is often paid, and little is lent under eight or ten per cent. per annum.' P. 140.

We must therefore naturally expect that our own manufactures will long hold their pre-eminence on the continent. Mr. W. informs us that they are smuggled into France to a great extent, though the seizures and personal punishments of individuals render this operation very difficult.

The length of the present article prevents our accompanying the author in his account of the state of the French army, which is indeed upon the best footing;—the religion of the country, which has greatly declined, and will, in all probability, be at length left to support itself without any assistance from the state;—the charitable institutions in France, of which the most

useful, namely, hospitals and orphan schools, are supported by the government;—the system established for general education, by primary and secondary schools and lyceums, the two first of which are under the regulation of government, but not paid by the state;—amusements of the Low Countries;—their domestic œconomy;—and the police of France, which is entirely military. On all these subjects Mr. Worsley writes like a man of discernment and information. He has composed a short and cheap treatise out of materials which in the hands of a regular book-maker would have fitted out an expensive quarto. We do not hesitate to recommend this book as a source of entertainment and instruction, and particularly entitled to notice at the present critical moment.

ART. XIV.—*The History of the Manners, Landed Property, Government, Laws, Poetry, Literature, Religion, and Language of the Anglo-Saxons. By Sharon Turner, F. A. S. Octavo, 520 Pages. Price* 10*s.* 6*d.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THIS volume, in addition to the History of the Anglo-Saxons to the Norman Conquest, in three volumes, before published, completes the original undertaking of the author. He acquaints us that his great object has been to procure those interesting particulars concerning our Anglo-Saxon ancestors which had been left unnoticed in their antient MSS., and to throw light where it was possible on those parts of their history which have been usually deemed confused and obscure. To fulfil these purposes, he has examined every MS. and every author within his reach which promised to be useful, with scrupulous care to insert no circumstance without a sufficient authority; and considering fidelity in his quotations as an indispensable and important requisite. He has disregarded all theory and disputes on the subjects which have afforded matter for controversy, and has confined himself to the task of stating with care and truth the facts he has found recorded on such points in the Anglo-Saxon writers. And he accordingly expresses a well-founded confidence that the present work will add much original information to the first periods of our history.

It is divided into eight books. The first book treats of the Saxons in their pagan state, in four chapters, concerning their character and persons; their government and laws; religion; menology and literature. The second book is employed on the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, their infancy, childhood, and names; education, food, drinks and cookery; dress, houses, furniture and luxuries; conviviality and amusements; marriages; classes and conditions of society; gilds or clubs; trades, mechanical arts, and foreign commerce; money; chivalry; superstitions; funerals.

The third book treats of their landed property, under the titles

of husbandry; proprietorship in land and tenures; burdens to which the lands were liable, and their privileges; conveyances; particulars of the names of places in Middlesex and London in the Saxon times; law-suits about land; denominations of land. The fourth book treats of the government of the Anglo-Saxons; the king's election and coronation; his family and officers; the dignity and prerogatives of the Anglo-Saxon Cining; the Wittena-gemot; their official dignities. The fifth book is employed in the history of their laws, under the titles homicide, personal injuries, theft, adultery; the were and the mund; their borh, or sureties; their legal tribunals; their ordeals and legal punishments; the trial by jury. The sixth book treats of their poetry, literature, arts and sciences. In this we find disquisitions on, and quotations from, the Latin poetry of Aldhelm, Bede, Boniface, Alcuin, and others; the vernacular poetry of the Anglo-Saxons; Alfred's translations; the poetical paraphrase of Cædmon; fragment of Judith; and an Anglo-Saxon heroic poem in the Cotton library, from which the author has given numerous translated extracts with observations. These are followed by an express chapter on the versification of the Anglo-Saxons; after which the author proceeds to their literature, considered in the life and prose works of Aldhelm, Bede, Boniface, Eddius, Alcuin and Elfric. The music, painting, and architecture of the Anglo-Saxons are next treated of; and the present division is concluded with an account of their sciences; namely, arithmetic, astronomy and geography, medicine, surgery: all which, like those of every other early nation, were very imperfect. The seventh book is employed on their religion, from the introduction of Christianity: we are presented with the Anglo-Saxon Te Deum and Jubilate. The eighth book contains a short account of the Anglo-Saxon language, which Mr. T. first treats in the way of decomposition, and afterwards proceeds to give a few instances of the formation of compound words. The originality and copiousness of the Anglo-Saxon language constitute the subject of his two concluding chapters.

From this extensive outline, and that diligence, ability, and correctness of research which Mr. Turner has before manifested, it will be easily perceived, that the mass of interesting matter here collected and arranged must prove an invaluable acquisition to the cultivators of the history of our ancestors. An extract or two will show the manner in which he treats his subject. The conviviality and amusements of the Anglo-Saxons are thus described:

'In the ruder states of society melancholy is the prevailing feature of the mind; the stern or dismal countenances of savages are every where remarkable. Usually the prey of want or passion, they are seldom cheerful till they can riot in excess. Their mirth is then violent and transient, and they soon relapse into their habitual gloom.

'As the agricultural state advances, and the comforts of civiliza-

tion accumulate, provident industry secures regular supplies; the removal of want diminishes care and introduces leisure; the softer affections then appear with increasing fervour, the human temper is rendered milder, mirth and joy become habitual, mankind are delighted to indulge their social feelings, and a large portion of time is devoted to amusement.

'The Anglo-Saxons were in this happy state of social improvement; they loved the pleasures of the table, but they had the wisdom to unite with them more intellectual diversions. At their cheerful meetings it was the practice for all to sing in turn; and Bede mentions an instance in which, for this purpose, the harp was sent round. The musicians of the day, the wild flowers of their poetry, and the ludicrous jokes and tricks of their buffas, were such essential additions to their conviviality, that the council of Cloveshoe, which thought that more solemn manners were better suited to the ecclesiastic, forbad the monks to suffer their mansions to be the receptacle of the "sportive arts, that is, of poets, harpers, musicians, and buffoons." A previous council, aiming to produce the same effect, had decreed, that no ecclesiastic should have harpers, or any music, nor should permit any jokes or plays in their presence. In Edgar's speech on the expulsion of the clergy, the histriones, or gleemen, are noticed as frequenting the monasteries: "There are the dice, there are dancing and singing, even to the very middle of the night." Among the canons made in the same king's reign, a priest was forbidden to be an eala-scop, or an ale poet, or to anywise gliwige, or play the gleeman with himself, or with others. Strutt has given some drawings of the Saxon gleeman from some antient MSS. I will add his description of the figures. "We there see a man throwing three balls and three knives alternately into the air, and catching them one by one as they fall, but returning them again in rotation. To give the greater appearance of difficulty to this part, it is accompanied with the music of an instrument resembling the modern violin. It is necessary to add, that these two figures, as well as those dancing, previously mentioned, form a part only of two larger paintings, which, in their original state, are placed as frontispieces to the Psalms of David; in both, the artists have represented that monarch seated upon his throne, in the act of playing upon the harp or lyre, and surrounded by the masters of sacred music. In addition to the four figures upon the middle of the plate, and exclusive of the king, there are four more, all of them instrumental performers; one playing upon the horn, another upon the trumpet, and the other two upon a kind of tabor or drum, which, however, is beaten with a single drum-stick. The manuscript in which this illumination is preserved, was written as early as the eighth century. The second painting, which is more modern than the former by two full centuries, contains four figures besides the royal psalmist: the two not engraved are musicians; the one is blowing a long trumpet, supported by a staff he holds in his left hand, and the other is winding a crooked horn. In a short prologue immediately preceding the Psalms, we read as follows: David, filius Jesse, in regno suo quatuor elegit, qui psalmos fecerunt, id est Asaph, Æman, Æthan, et Iduthan; which may be thus translated literally: David, the son of Jesse, in his reign, elected four persons who composed psalms, that is to say, Asaph, Æman, Æthan, and Iduthan. In the painting these four names are separately appropriated,

one to each of the four personages there represented. The player upon the violin is called Iduthan, and Æthan is tossing up the knives and balls."

'Another passage may be cited from the same industrious and worthy author.

'"One part of the gleeman's profession, as early as the tenth century, was teaching animals to dance, to tumble, and to put themselves into variety of attitudes at the command of their masters. Upon the twenty-second plate we see the curious though rude delineation, being little more than an outline, which exhibits a specimen of this pastime. The principal joculator appears in the front, holding a knotted switch in one hand, and a line attached to the bear in the other; the animal is lying down in obedience to his command; and behind them are two more figures, the one playing upon two flutes or flageolets, and elevating his left leg while he stands upon his right, supported by a staff that passes under his arm-pit; the other dancing. This performance takes place upon an eminence resembling a stage, made with earth; and in the original a vast concourse are standing round it in a semicircle as spectators of the sport, but they are so exceedingly ill drawn, and withal so indistinct, that I did not think it worth the pains to copy them. The dancing, if I may so call it, of the flute-player is repeated twice in the same manuscript. I have thence selected two other figures and placed them upon the seventeenth plate, where we see a youth playing upon a harp with only four strings, and apparently singing at the same time, while an elderly man is playing the part of a buffoon, or posture-master, holding up one of his legs, and hopping upon the other to the music."

'In a Latin MS. of Prudentius, with Saxon notes, there is a drawing which seems to represent a sort of military dance exhibited for public amusement: "Two men equipped in martial habits, and each of them armed with a sword and shield, are engaged in a combat; the performance is enlivened by the sound of a horn; the musician acts in a double capacity, and is, together with a female assistant, dancing round them to the cadence of the music, and probably the actions of the combatants were also regulated by the same measure."

'We may remark, that the word commonly used in Anglo-Saxon to express dancing, is the verb tumbian. The Anglo-Saxon version of the gospels mentions that the daughter of Herodias tumbude before Herod; and the Anglo-Saxon word for dancer is tumbere. It is probable that their mode of dancing included much tumbling.

'We may infer that bear-baiting was an amusement of some importance to our ancestors, as it is stated in Doomsday-book, among the annual payments from Norwich, that it should provide one bear, and six dogs for the bear.

'It was in the character of a gleeman, or as it was expressed in the Latin term joculator, that Alfred visited the Danish encampment. That these persons were not only valued, but well rewarded in their day, we learn from a curious fact: Edmund, the son of Ethelred, gave a villa to his gleeman, or joculator, whose name was Hitard. This gleeman, in the decline of life, went on a visit of devotion to Rome, and previous to his journey gave the land to the church at Canterbury. In Doomsday-book Berdic, a joculator of the king, is stated to have possessed three villas in Gloucestershire.

'The Anglo-Saxons used a game at hazard, which they called tæfl. The tæfl-stan, or tæfl-stone, was the die. The canons of Edgar forbid priests to be tæflere, or players at the tæfl. There is a passage which may be noticed on this subject concerning Canute: A bishop having made a lucrative bargain with a drunken Dane, rode in the night to the king to borrow money to fulfil his contract; it says, "he found the king alleviating the tedium of a long night by the play of tesserarum, or scaccorum;" he was successsful in his application. Whether this play was the tæfl, or any other game more resembling chess, is not clear.

'One of their principal diversions was hunting. This is frequently mentioned. A king is exhibited by Bede as standing at the fire with his attendants, and warming himself after hunting. Alfred is praised by his friend Asser for his incomparable skill and assiduity in the arts of the chase. He is stated to have gone as far as Cornwall to enjoy it. Edmund the grandson of Alfred's hunt at Ceoddri is thus described by a contemporary: "When they reached the woods they took various directions among the woody avenues, and lo, from the varied noise of the horns and the barking of the dogs, many stags began to fly about. From these the king, with his pack of hounds, selected one for his own hunting, and pursued it long through devious ways with great agility on his horse, and with the dogs following. In the vicinity of Ceoddri were several abrupt and lofty precipices hanging over profound declivities. To one of these the stag came in his flight, and dashed himself down the immense depth with headlong ruin, all the dogs following and perishing with him. The king, pursuing the animal and the hounds with equal energy, was rushing onwards to the precipice; he saw his danger, and struggled violently to stop his courser; the horse disobeyed awhile his rein: he gave up the hope of life, he recommended himself to God and his saint, and was carried to the very brink of the destruction before the speed of the animal could be checked. The horse's feet were trembling on the last turf of the precipice when he stopped."

'In the Saxon dialogues above mentioned we have this conversation on hunting: 'I am a hunter to one of the kings.' 'How do you exercise your art?' 'I spread my nets, and set them in a fit place, and instruct my hounds to pursue the wild deer till they come into the nets unexpectedly, and so are entangled, and I slay them in the nets.' 'Cannot you hunt without nets?' 'Yes, with swift hounds I follow the wild deer.' 'What wild deer do you chiefly take?' 'Harts, boars, and rein-deer (rana), and goats, and sometimes hares.' 'Did you hunt to-day?' 'No, because it was Sunday; but yesterday I did. I took two harts and one boar.' 'How?' 'The harts in nets, the boar I slew.' 'How dared you slay him?' 'The hounds drove him to me, and I standing opposite pierced him.' 'You was bold.' 'A hunter should not be fearful, because various wild deer live in the woods.' 'What do you do with your hunting?' 'I give the king what I take, because I am his huntsman.' 'What does he give thee?' 'He clothes me well, and feeds me, and sometimes gives me a horse or a bracelet, that I may follow my art more lustily.'

'We have a little information about the royal hunting in Doomsday-book. When the king went to Shrewsbury to hunt, the most respectable burghers who had horses, served as his guard, with arms; and

the sheriff sent thirty-six men on foot to be stationed at the hunt while the king was there. In Hereford every house sent a man to be stationed in the wood whenever the king hunted.

'Among the drawings in the Saxon calendar in the Cotton library, Tib. B. 5, the month of September represents a boar-hunt: a wood appears, containing boars; a man is on foot with a spear, another appears with a horn slung and applied to his mouth; he has also a spear, and dogs are following.

'Hunting was forbidden by Canute on a Sunday. Every man was allowed to hunt in the woods, and in the fields that were his own, but not to interfere with the king's hunting.

'Hawks and falcons were also favourite subjects of amusement, and valuable presents in those days, when, the country being much overrun with wood, all species of the feathered race must have abounded. A king of Kent begged of a friend abroad two falcons of such skill and courage as to attack cranes willingly, and seizing them to throw them to the ground. He says, he makes this request because there were few hawks of that kind in Kent who produced good offspring, and who could be made agile and courageous enough in this art of warfare. Our Boniface sent, among some other presents, a hawk and two falcons to a friend; and we may infer the common use of the diversion from his forbidding his monks to hunt in the woods with dogs, and from having hawks and falcons. An Anglo-Saxon, by his will, gives two hawks (hafocas), and all his stag-hounds (headorhundas), to his natural lord. The sportsmen in the train of the great were so onerous on lands as to make the exemption of their visit a valuable privilege. Hence a king liberates some lands from those who carry with them hawks or falcons, horses or dogs. The Saxon calendar, in its drawings, represents hawking in the month of October.

'Hunting and hawking were for many ages favourite diversions in this island. In the tapestry of Bayeux, Harold appears with his hawk upon his hand. Ethelstan made North Wales furnish him with as many dogs as he chose, "whose scent-pursuing noses might explore the haunts and coverts of the deer;" and he also exacted birds, "who knew how to hunt others along the atmosphere." A nobleman is mentioned who frequented his estate near woods and marshes, because it was convenient for hunting and hawking. This was the fashion of the times; and even the meek and impassive Edward the Confessor is exhibited as pursuing his deer, when he was thwarted by a rustic whom he desired to punish, but that his simple mind knew not that he had the power. The chief delights of this king were the coursing of swift hounds, whose clamour during the sport he was eager to cheer, and the flights of birds whose nature it is to pursue their kindred prey. Every day after his morning devotions he indulged in these exercises.

'The Saxon dialogues thus speak of the fowler: 'How do you deceive fowls?'—'Many ways: sometimes with nets, sometimes with gins, sometimes with lime, sometimes whistling, sometimes with hawks, sometimes with traps.'—'Have you a hawk?'—'I have.'—'Can you tame them?'—'I can; what use would they be to me if I could not tame them?'—'Give me a hawk.'—'I will give it willingly if you will give me a swift hound. Which hawk will you have; the greater or the less?'—'The greater; how do you feed them?'—

'They feed themselves and me in winter, and in spring I let them fly to the woods. I take for myself young ones in harvest and tame them.'—'And why do you let them fly from you when tamed?'—'Because I will not feed them in summer, as they eat too much.'—'But many feed and keep them tame through the summer, that they may again have them ready.'—'So they do; but I will not have that trouble about them, as I can take many others.' P. 97.

[To be continued.]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

Art. 15.—*Occasional Discourses on various Subjects, with copious Annotations. By Richard Monkhouse, D. D. of Queen's College, Oxford, and Minister of St. John Baptist's Church, Wakefield. With a Portrait of the Author. In* 3 *Vols.* 8*vo. Price* 1*l.* 4*s.* Longman and Co. 1805.

THIS collection consists of twenty-five discourses, of which seven have been before published, and the work is sanctioned by a list of between five and six hundred subscribers. Most of them are practical: not only as relating to the general exercise of religion and morality, but to the particular circumstances of the times and appropriate occasions for which they were composed. On this account the author has illustrated them with notes historical and explanatory, tending to give additional force in the closet to the discourses which in the pulpit must have had much effect from the piety, benevolence, and patriotism they every where manifest. Dr. M.'s style is correct, but somewhat laboured; his reasoning clear and pointed; and the subjects themselves, in general, are of such a description as cannot fail to engage the attention of mankind, and lead them strongly to the duties they owe to the Almighty and to each other. Besides many important general topics, the doctor has discoursed on the merit and advantage of benevolent societies; the unjustifiableness of the slave-trade; the superiority of Merrick's metrical version of the Psalms over the two versions commonly in use; the various occasions for exerting our patriotism; the excellence of our constitution of government; the scarcity of 1799; the duty of affording relief to the afflicted, addressed to the antient and honourable order of Gregorians; and on the excellence of free-masonry. Not being ourselves initiated in either of these antient and honourable fraternities, but believing them to be established on principles of "peace and good will towards men," though with an engagement to secrecy of which society at large cannot estimate the value, it has not appeared to us that they constitute proper subjects for the pulpit. But we speak this with charity, and give the doctor full credit for sincerity of motive and convictions of duty grounded on his own, probably, better knowledge.

Art. 16.—*Virtuous Remembrance. A Sermon, sacred to the Memory of the honoured Dead; and particularly of the late James Currie, M. D. F. R. S. Preached at the Chapel, in Paradise-street, Liverpool, Nov.* 17, 1805. *By the Rev. G. Walker, F. R. S. President of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.* 8vo. 39 *Pages. Price* 1*s.* 6*d.* Johnson, &c.

An impressive and elegant discourse,—in which, from the consideration of the dealings of divine Providence with us, when eminent and superior characters are taken away, in the prime of manhood and the highest capacity for doing good, the author deduces a number of affecting arguments to show that this life is merely a time of probation, not entitled to any considerable share of our affections; and that it is good for us to indulge in a pleasing regret for our departed friends: provided that emotion be rightly directed to our improvement in virtue and piety, and to give stability to the hope of again meeting them in a better state of existence.

Art. 17.—*The Lord Jesus Christ's Sermon on the Mount. With a Course of Questions and Answers, explaining that valuable Portion of Scripture; and intended chiefly for the Instruction of Young Persons. By the Rev. John Eyton.* 12mo. 37 *Pages. Price* 1*s.* Houlston and Son, Wellington; Hatchard, Crosby and Co., &c. London.

This diligent pastor has adopted the custom of receiving a few young persons on the Sunday evening, for the purpose of instructing them in various portions of the word of God. Every one who has at any time been engaged in the communication of knowledge, more particularly to youth, must have observed that their improvement is most effectually promoted by questioning them very frequently upon such subjects as have already been imparted and explained. Mr. Eyton, no doubt, has availed himself of this rational method, and must have found, according to the difference of capacities, that some young persons will require the plainest subjects to be very often repeated before they will themselves be enabled to answer a simple question respecting them. For the spiritual benefit of these, and of young people in general, he has printed our Saviour's most excellent sermon on the mount, with a short course of introductory observations, and a fuller explanation, in the way of question and answer. This little work promises to be useful, and the author will receive a part of his reward in the satisfaction of finding it so.

Art. 18.—*Juvenile Essays: comprising in the Order of Merit, the first and second half-yearly Prize Compositions of the Pupils belonging to the Milk-street Academy, Sheffield. To which is prefixed a brief History of Education, and a Table of the System pursued in that Academy. By J. H. Abraham.* 12mo. 130 *Pages.* Todd, Sheffield.

This work was published by subscription, and affords very satisfactory evidence of the talents and diligence of Mr. Abraham, and the improvement of his pupils. His short tract upon education contains observations on the methods used by the antients, and in some of the modern public establishments. From its conciseness it was not to be expected that much could be said even in the way of enumeration. The essays, to the number of thirty, by his scholars of both

sexes, cannot with propriety form the subject of critical discussion. Their merits must bear relation to the particular circumstances of the age, time of study, and other considerations; to be estimated and allowed for in that court of judicature where they have already met with such honourable distinction.

Art. 19.—*A new Treatise on the Use of the Globes, or a Philosophical View of the Earth and Heavens, comprehending an Account of the Figure, Magnitude, and Motion of the Earth; with the natural Changes of its Surface, caused by Floods, Earthquakes, &c. together with the elementary Principles of Meteorology, and Astronomy; the Theory of the Tides, &c. preceded by an extensive Selection of Astronomical and other Definitions, and illustrated by a great Variety of Problems, Questions for the Examination of the Student, &c. designed for the Instruction of Youth. By Thomas Keith, private Teacher of Mathematics, Geography, &c.* 12*mo.* 358 *Pages, with* 4 *Plates.* 6s. *Boards.* Longman and Co. &c. 1805.

The very full title of this work renders it unnecessary for us to give any further statement of its nature and design. It is ably executed; and from the closeness of the printing the author has been enabled to give so large a quantity of matter that his work must be classed among those extended treatises which are designed for the study and perusal of such as cultivate the sciences without a master; instead of those young persons who being continually under the eye of a master, are taught by the method of short rules and much practice or many examples. But though we cannot consider it as a school-book, it will, we doubt not, meet encouragement from a very numerous class of readers, who may be desirous of possessing almost every fact, observation, and document, which bear relation to the subjects he has treated on. For the diligence of Mr. Keith has been such, that his work contains not only a perspicuous exposition of the most recent doctrines given in his own language, but it likewise exceeds most books of the same class by one half in quantity.

Art. 20.—*Hints to young Practitioners in the Study of Landscape Painting, illustrated by ten Engravings, intended to show the different Stages of the neutral Tint. By J. W. Alston. To which are added Instructions in the Art of Painting on Velvet.* 65 *Pages, with an engraved Title, and six Plates. Price* 7*s.* Longman and Co. London, 1805.

This work contains plain and clear instructions for drawing landscape: First, of outlines in black lead; next, shading in Indian ink; and thence he proceeds to explain with regularity and precision the method of managing coloured drawings. These instructions are illustrated by the same landscape in outline,—in aqua tinta to represent Indian ink,—in aqua tinta with a wash of raw terra de Sienna,—and, lastly, in aqua tinta coloured. Some observations upon drawing from nature are next given, with two plates containing sketches of figures. He mentions the principal masters worthy of imitation, and concludes his treatise with some instructions respecting the mixing and management of colours, &c.

Art. 21.—*Poems and Plays. By William Richardson, A. M. Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow. A new Edition. In 2 Vols. 12mo. Price* 10*s.* 6*d.* Mundell and Son, Edinburgh; Vernor and Hood, and Longman and Co. London.

THE poetical productions of professor Richardson have most of them appeared on former occasions. These, with a few additional compositions, are now for the first time published all together, with the author's revisal and correction. This edition is beautifully printed on fine paper. The character of Richardson as a critic and a poet is not now to be investigated, as the public have long ago bestowed the meed of approval; for which reason we are not called upon for remarks upon any of the pieces in the present collection. Strong sense, and facility of versification, distinguish his productions, and these in many of the longer pieces are strikingly apparent: a considerable number of the shorter productions may be ranked in the best class of common-place poetry.

Art. 22.—*Original Sonnets, and other small Poems. By Anna Maria Smallpiece. 12mo.* 182 *Pages.* Johnson. 1805.

SONNETS and other short poems have ever been considered as compositions requiring all the sensibility of highly cultivated genius. In these compositions, if the thought be not simple, entire, and in a certain respect pointed; if the language deviate in the smallest degree from elegance and precision; if the numbers be not varied and melodious; or if there be the slightest sacrifice to unskilfulness or indolence in the structure of the verse,—the jewel is flawed, and its value disappears. When we feel ourselves under the necessity of saying that we have perused this volume, and find very few indeed of its contents which are not thus blemished, we are not disposed to urge this as a sentence of condemnation. This lady has shown that she possesses imagination and sensibility; but her poetical taste is not yet sufficiently matured to give her the power of writing cultivated poetry, or even such poetry as shall not frequently offend from defects of language and of measure. We have selected her Sonnet L. as one of the most perfect.

'To .....

'Midst groves, 'midst lawns, and wildly winding streams,
And forests deep, and hills that bound the view,
Whose green slopes catch the sun's departing beams,
Gilding their summits with celestial hue,
How kindly Nature destines thee to dwell,
To drink the waters from the fountains clear!
No noise arrests thee, but the sheep-fold's bell,
Or song of birds, that carol in the year.
But ah! nor groves, nor Nature's beauteous face,
Nor blossom'd Spring, nor Summer's sweetest flow'rs,
Could charm the soul where passions fierce deface
Rural delights, and cloud the peaceful hours.
No, friend so dear, 'tis thy own gentle heart
That to these scenes a zest sublime impart.' p. 50.

We must observe that this lady has given the name of sonnets to those of her compositions which consist of 14 lines; but she has not

subjected herself to the rules of versification which are usually appropriated to poems of that denomination. Perhaps we may be influenced by habit, which has associated that measure in our minds along a number of beautiful productions of Milton, Charlotte Smith, and others; but we think we are not mistaken in supposing that the laws of the sonnet have a beneficial influence over the mind of the poet as well as of the reader, in the management and conception of the subject.

Art. 23.—*The Victory of Trafalgar, a Naval Ode, in Commemoration of the Heroism of the British Navy. By Samuel Maxey, Esq. 4to. 35 Pages. Price 2s.* Johnson.

This patriotic gentleman has given a regular account in smooth verse of the meeting of the British and combined fleets; the dreadful engagement that took place, with the disastrous fate of Nelson, which we all deplore, and the signal victory gained by the conduct of that hero, and the valour of our brave seamen: this is followed by an account of the storm which ensued; the activity of the British sailors in preserving the lives of their foes; and a recommendation to the public to show liberality in their behalf.

The subjects of this ode are so familiar to the British ear in prose, as to constitute an additional difficulty to the task of giving them a Pindaric form. The subject is in itself sublime; but the author, who modestly calls this "an unostentatious effort in poetry," has reason to be content with his motives for writing, though we cannot say he has made any addition to its sublimity.

Art. 24.—*The Delinquent, a Comedy, in Five Acts, by Frederic Reynolds, performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.*

This comedy is not written according to the rules of any critical code that has hitherto appeared: it is the successor of many, by the same author, all of which have consisted of a similarity of means and materials; or an essay to exhibit the light frivolities of the current season: except that, in some of his late pieces, Mr. Reynolds has endeavoured to introduce, in a part of his plot, characters of more passion and moral consequence. With respect to critical rules, indeed, whether it be from accident or design, he appears, in his numerous writings, to have set them at defiance; and as his comedies have generally amused the public, it at least proves that the dramatic laws of criticism still demand much inquiry, and most probably no little alteration. Of this indeed there is sufficient proof, both in great instances and in small.

The serious and impassioned part of The Delinquent is by no means sufficiently consistent, or enough developed to produce the effects which the author intended: nor have the lighter parts any claim to high humour or pure attic wit; yet the perusal of it may not only amuse a leisure hour, but suggest many ideas to the mind which is accustomed to ready perception and quick combination.

Art. 25.—*The School for Friends, a Comedy, in Five Acts, by Miss Chambers, performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane.*

In this comedy, though there is little originality of character, novelty of plot and incident, or flow of wit and humour, yet there are

so many happy remarks on life and manners, and so much justness of moral thinking, that it has been very deservedly received with favour by the public. In the closet it makes a less forcible impression than on the stage: much of the triteness which it contains, and many of the little inaccuracies which force themselves into notice when under the eye, glide over the ear almost imperceptibly, when, as in the present case, just thoughts and pleasant images are predominant in the mind. Report says, Miss Chambers is now but five-and-twenty; that this comedy was written three or four years ago; and that it was offered to the other theatre, and there refused: but to the truth of these reports we do not pledge ourselves. We have mentioned them only to bring to recollection the great merit of a young lady, who could write such a comedy at so early an age; and the equivocal, we might say wretched, state of authors, who possess those keen faculties which are necessary to produce such works, and who still remain at the mercy of managers, against whose mistakes in judgment there is no effectual appeal.

Art. 26.—*Specimens of Early English Metrical Romances; chiefly written during the early Part of the 14th Century; to which is prefixed an Historical Introduction, intended to illustrate the Rise and Progress of Romantic Composition in France and England. By George Ellis, Esq.* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 1*l.* 7*s.* Longman and Co. London, 1805.

The antiquarian and the lover of romance will be equally gratified with a perusal of the present collection; it contains matter to assist the student in his researches into the progress of literature, and affords gratification for the vacant hours of him who reads only for amusement. The design of the work will be best explained in the author's words, prefixed as an advertisement to the first volume.

'The following volumes are intended to supply a chasm in the "Specimens of Early English Poets," by explaining more fully the progress of our poetry and language, from the latter part of the thirteenth to the middle of the fourteenth century; and to exhibit a general view of our romances of chivalry, in their earliest and simplest form.

'These romances are divided into the following classes:—1st, Romances relating to king Arthur; 2d, Anglo-Saxon romances; 3d, Anglo-Norman romances; 4th, Romances relating to Charlemagne; 5th, Romances of Oriental origin; and 6th, Miscellaneous romances.

'The editor has followed, with little deviation, the plan adopted by M. Le Grand in his edition of the French Fabliaux; and has faithfully given, in plain prose, not only the general outline, but even the smallest incidents of each story: but he has thought it necessary to intersperse, throughout the narrative, such passages of the originals as appeared to him worth preserving, either from their poetical merit,—from their representing correct pictures of antient manners,—or from their being characteristic of the author's feelings, or of those of the nation.'

The historical introduction comprises a view of the changes which took place in the Romance or French language, in consequence of the first Danish invasion; its preservation and improvement by the same people after their establishment in Normandy; their first attempt

at composition, of which the style was improved by the clergy; remarks on their minstrels; observation that the first romances were merely metrical histories; the origin of romantic fiction ascribed by bishop Percy to the northern nations, by Mr. Warton to the Arabians, and by others to the Celtic tribes of Armorica, Wales, &c., with an attempt to reconcile these opinions; conjecture that the first French romances were written in England, supported by authorities; researches of the Normans concerning British history, and the materials to which they had access; notice of the British traditions rejected by William of Malmsbury, but adopted by others; summary of the British Chronicle, by Geoffry of Monmouth, and of his *Vita Merlini*, with an inquiry into the materials from which the Chronicle was compiled; conjecture concerning the fabulous Arthur; inquiry into the state of Wales, during the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries; intimate connection between the Welch and Normans, and its influence on romance; state of the Welch tribes within the Scotish border, and the probability that some original and many translated romances were the work of Scotish poets. In an Appendix we are presented with an analysis of the work of Alphonsus *de Clericali Disciplina*, in the royal library of the British Museum; and a translation of the Lays of Marie.

The work itself contains Romances relating to Arthur: Saxon Romances, including History of Guy of Warwick, with introductory conjectures whether such a person ever existed; History of Sir Bevis of Hamptoun: Anglo-Norman Romance, viz.—History of Richard Cœur de Lion: Romances relating to Charlemagne; comprising Histories of Roland and Ferragus, of Sir Ortuel, and of Sir Ferumbras: Romances of Oriental Origin, comprehending the History of the Seven Wise Masters: and Miscellaneous Romances, viz. Florice and Blancheflour, Robert of Cysille, Sir Isumbras, Sir Triamour, the Lyfe of Ipomydon, Sir Eglamour of Artois, Lay le Fraine, Sirs Eger, Grahame, and Graysteel, Sir Degoré, Roswal and Lillian, Amys and Amylion.

The author has occasionally explained obsolete words and difficult passages of the originals, in notes at the foot of the pages; but perhaps his design would in this respect have been better answered, had he collected them into one view as a general glossary.

Art. 27.—*The Spirit of the French Anas.* 12*mo.* 3 *Vols. With Portraits of Luther, Boileau, and Perron. Price* 15*s.* Phillips, London. 1805.

We are sorry to pronounce this a dull collection. Most of the pieces of wit have been long ago transfused into similar works in our language, and the observations on subjects connected with antiquity have become mere common-place. The morsels which are most interesting are such as are given by the writers when they speak of other contemporary men of celebrity. We have selected a few of these detached pieces which appear to us to possess more merit than the others.

'*Salmasius.*—When I was at Leyden studying physic, I frequently had conversations with Salmasius. I used continually on a Sunday afternoon to visit him, where I found people of very high rank. Salmasius used to sit on one side of the fire-place, and his wife on the other; and the company round them. She was a woman of great

sense and reading; and continually joined in the discourse; and no one of the company escaped her raillery. Salmasius talked little, and without effort; but when in good humour, he was very talkative and erudite. I remember carrying with me there a French gentleman who had never seen him, and we agreed to talk of hunting and coursing. We opened the subject; and my friend, who was an old sportsman, declared he was surprised at the accurate and wide knowledge of Salmasius on that topic. "For he talked not of field sports," says my friend, "from books alone; but he showed an acquaintance with them that could only be obtained by traversing the whole country, and killing a thousand hares." SORBIERE.

'*M. de la Rochefoucault*—was not a man of erudition, but had an extraordinary share of common sense, and a very extensive knowledge of the world. These qualifications enabled him to make shrewd observations on life; and, under the form and title of "Maxims," to exhibit to the public eye his knowledge of the human heart, into which his genius taught him to penetrate deeply. I have so great an admiration of his book of Maxims, that I can repeat them nearly all by heart. I consider the author as extravagant on the subject of self-love, when he asserts, that we act merely from our own interest, without regard to that of another; yet when we praise the merit of any one, we cannot be interested in bestowing the eulogy; since we may be totally ignorant of the person whom we commend, except with regard to his character. We do not form attachments merely from self-interest. We like an individual for his personal merit and acknowledged amiableness; and it is rash always to judge of the sentiments of others by our own.' SEGRAIS.

'*Scarron.*—When any person called on this comic writer, he was obliged to take a seat, and hear all the compositions which he had produced since their last meeting. When I went to see him, together with a man of letters, he made us sit down and *try on*, as he termed it, his new work. It was "The Comic Romance." When he saw that we smiled; "Good! it *will fit*," said he. He was a man of uncommon humour in conversation, even under anger and grief; for the ridiculous part of every thing was immediately presented to his mind by the vivacity of his imagination, and uttered in a moment by the facility of his expression. On his marriage with madame Maintenon, his speech, before too free and licentious on all subjects, was much restrained and amended. His "Comic Romance" was for the most part written after his marriage.' SEGRAIS.

'*Astrology.*—The caliph Abu Jaaffar Almansor sent for a man who was celebrated as an astrologer, and ordered him to take his horoscope. After accurate calculations, the sage told the caliph that all pretenders to his throne would *die* before him. The astrologer was dismissed without a present. Another was introduced, who, after the usual ceremonies of casting a nativity, declared, that he would *outlive* all who could have any pretension to the caliphant. This man was handsomely rewarded. The meaning of each prophecy was the same; the terms differed. The former astrologer had mentioned death; the latter had softened his speech by another expression. The term *death*

or dying is unpleasant to many; among the Romans the idea was held in abhorrence, and on their tomb-stones a word signifying that such a one had *lived* was substituted for another, that would have proclaimed that he *died*.' CHEVREAU.

'*The Delphin Editions of the Classics.*—These useful commentaries were begun at the instigation of the duke de Montausier*, designed for the use of the dauphin of France, and undertaken by the orders of the king. Montausier, though he lived chiefly in courts and camps, was never negligent in the pursuit and patronage of literature; but frequently embarrassed, in reading the classics, from the want of notes and commentaries annexed to them, and the difficulty of having many books with him on his journeys. M. Colbert, to whom the duke proposed the design of employing a certain number of scholars to edit the best classics, with notes, &c. and to grant to them a sufficient pecuniary reward for their toil, opened the royal treasury on this occasion with the zeal of a man of letters, and the liberality becoming a prime minister. The conduct of this plan was intrusted to me; and my intention was to include forty authors in this series of editions; and to employ the same number of able persons to collect and arrange the various parts of learning necessary to complete this purpose. I was obliged to be satisfied with persons of less literary eminence than I could have wished to have met with. They were moreover very unequal in their capacities. These disadvantages excited me to endeavour to affix to each separate author, an index of all the words which he contained; aware of the extensive utility of such indexes which had already been published. I was willing to do more, by incorporating the respective indexes of the several authors into one general index, which would contain the whole body of the Latin language: inasmuch as the reader would have found, with ease and with certainty, in such an index, the origin, age, usage, signification, state, duration, decline, and total extinction of each word. The Latin language had not hitherto received so substantial an help, or so solid a security from ignorance and barbarity, as these means would have ensured to it. But the tardy operations of the scholars employed, the extent of the work, and the marriage of the dauphin, who then quitted his studies, put an end to our labours in the midst of their progress.' HUET.

'*Singular Discovery of a Murder.*—Martin Luther used to relate the following story: A traveller fell among thieves, who ferociously resolved to murder him. Whilst they were putting into execution their horrid resolutions, the unfortunate man, lifting up his eyes to heaven, observed a flock of crows which hovered over his head—"Revenge my death," exclaimed the unhappy traveller, "ye birds of luckless omen!" A few days after this inhuman transaction, the thieves entered a house in an adjoining town, when one of the party, who observed a large collection of crows gathering round, said sarcastically, "Here they are

---

* Charles de St. Maure, duke de Montausier, was governor to Louis the dauphin, and a successful commander in the civil wars of France, during the minority of that prince. He gained the approbation of his fellow-citizens by the merit which he displayed in his profession, the probity of his conduct, and the protection which he invariably held out to men of talents and literature.

come to revenge the death of the traveller, whom we slaughtered some few days since." The servant of the house, hearing these words, related them to the master, and he to the magistrate, and the rascals soon suffered a punishment adequate to their crime.' LUTHER.

'*A Quick Retort of a Sophist.*—Pyrrhon, the head of the sect called after his name, asserted that there was no difference between life and death. Some person, in ridicule of this absurd position, asked Pyrrhon why he did not die, as life and death were the same. "For that very reason," replied Pyrrhon, "because there is no difference between the two states." CHEVREAU.

Art. 28.—*A Proposal for destroying the Fire- and Choak-Damps of Coal Mines, and their Production explained on the Principles of modern Chemistry; addressed to the Owners and Agents of Coal Works, &c. By Thomas Trotter, M. D. late Physician to his Majesty's Fleet, &c. &c. Octavo. 47 Pages. Price 2s.* J. Mitchell, Newcastle; Longman and Co. London, 1805.

IT is rather singular, that while so many of the discoveries in chemistry are applied to the arts and other useful purposes of life, so little attention should have been paid to the probability of remedying the effects of mephitic exhalations, which render mines, more particularly coal mines, so dangerous to the workmen who explore them. Dr. Trotter, urged by public motives of the most commendable description, has in the present small pamphlet given an account of the fire-damp and choak-damp of the coal mines; the former of which is known to consist of hydrogen contaminated with other matters, and the latter consists chiefly of carbonic acid gas. He considers the production of both as a consequence of the decomposition of stagnant water by coal, the carbon of which seizing oxygen from the water, forms the choak-damp, while the other principle, hydrogen, flies off as fire-damp.

It is not of very great consequence, practically, whether these gases be produced exactly in the way pointed out by the doctor, provided his general advice be supported by the sanction of experience. Ventilation of the air, or a removal or drawing off of the stagnant waters, are admitted to be remedies, and are in general practised where circumstances allow. But the more particular application of our chemical knowledge by the doctor, to destroy these gases when already formed, consists in presenting the oxygenated muriatic gas to the fire-damp, in order to impart its oxygen; and of projecting water, or water containing quick-lime, into the space containing the carbonic acid gas. Whether these processes can be applied upon a scale of sufficient extent to be useful, must depend upon actual experiment, and the object well deserves the trial.